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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW;
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M,DCCC,VIII.

With an APPENDIX.

*"Qui voluptatibus deficiit quasi in diem vivens, vivendi causas quotidie facit :
qui vero posteros cogitat, et memoriam sui operibus extendit, his nulla mors non
repentina est."* PLIN.

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M,DCCC,VIII.

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OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. FOR REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c. of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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and Charles V. in the plenitude of his power ! It is at once an interesting and an inspiring contemplation.

The manner in which this portion of history attracted Mr. Coxe's attention is thus stated :

‘ The House of Austria has long been the subject of my contemplations. During my Travels in Switzerland, the character and exploits of Rhodolph of Hapsburgh, and the deeds of his immediate descendants, naturally arrested my attention, and found a place in my first publication *. While resident at Vienna the subject pressed more strongly on my mind ; and from the rich stores of the Imperial Library, and other sources of information, I collected abundant materials for Biographical Memoirs of the great Founder of this illustrious family. Other travels, and other publications, suspended this design ; and I changed it for the Historical and Political State of Europe, in which the House of Austria was intended to form a conspicuous figure. This plan was, however, relinquished, for reasons which I have mentioned in the Preface to the Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole ; but my collections for the Austrian History still continued to augment, particularly during two subsequent visits to Vienna. New literary pursuits still suspended, without diverting my design ; and the papers, to which I obtained access, while I was compiling the Memoirs of Sir Robert and Lord Walpole, swelled the mass of materials, and threw a new and interesting light on the modern period of the Austrian Annals. At length I found leisure to turn my whole attention to a work, which I had been unwilling to relinquish, though unable to complete ; and the result of my labours is the Book now offered to the Reader.’—

Mr. C.'s authorities, he informs us, are Printed, Manuscript, and Oral.

‘ It would be superfluous to recapitulate the titles of the numerous works which I have consulted and compared, particularly as they are generally quoted at the close of every chapter, often in every page, and constantly referred to at the termination of each reign.

‘ The Manuscript Authorities commence with the accession of Charles the Sixth ; and, as a bare catalogue would fill several pages, I shall only mention the principal.

‘ I have had the singular good fortune to obtain access to the papers of most of the British ministers at the Court of Vienna, from 1714 to 1792. These are ;

‘ I. The Letters of General Stanhope, Lord Cobham, General Cadogan, and Sir Luke Schaub, who were sent to Vienna to negotiate the Barrier Treaty.—In the Walpole Papers.

‘ II. The papers of St. Saphorin, a native of Switzerland, who was British agent at Vienna from 1720 to 1728.—In the Walpole, Townshend, Hardwicke, and Waldegrave papers.

‘ III. The dispatches of Lord Waldegrave, during his embassy from 1728 to 1730.—In the Waldegrave papers.

‘ IV. The diplomatic correspondence of Sir Thomas Robinson, afterwards Lord Grantham, during his long residence at Vienna,

* * Letters on Switzerland.’

from 1730 to 1748, as well as at the congress of Aix la Chapelle, where he was Plenipotentiary.—In the Grantham papers.

‘ V. The dispatches of Mr. Keith, during his residence as British minister at Vienna, from 1747 to 1758. During this period he witnessed the breach of that alliance with England, which nature, gratitude, and political interests had all contributed to cement; and that sinister union with France, which, however vaunted, however splendid and specious in its commencement, was the most fatal inheritance ever left by a sovereign to his successor, and the most prominent among the various causes which have led to the present humiliation of Austria, and the pernicious aggrandisement of France.

‘ VI. But the documents of all others the most important, and without which I could not have completed the latter part of the History, are contained in the papers of his son Sir Robert Murray Keith, which commence with 1772, terminate at the close of 1791, and comprise the latter part of the reign of Maria Theresa, and those of Joseph and Leopold.

‘ For the use of these two invaluable collections, I am indebted to Mrs. Murray Keith, the only surviving sister of Sir Robert Keith, by the intervention of my noble friend the Earl of Hardwicke, whose uninterrupted kindness I cannot acknowledge in terms sufficiently grateful.

‘ VII. Besides these documents penned at Vienna, I have had recourse to the extensive correspondence of the ministers at home, or ambassadors in foreign courts, contained in the Orford, Walpole, Townsend, Hardwicke, Keene, Harrington, and other collections, which are enumerated in the prefaces to the Memoirs of Sir Robert and Lord Walpole.

‘ VIII. Other papers, of recent date, delicacy precludes me from particularizing.

‘ I cannot specify all the sources of Oral Information, which I acquired during my travels, from foreign ambassadors, and the ministers of the respective courts which I visited. Among them, however, I may be permitted to mention the Prussian minister count Hertzberg, and some confidential friends of prince Kaunitz. I have also derived intelligence from numerous persons in high stations, both at home and abroad, who have taken a share in the transactions during the reigns of Maria Theresa, and her two successors.’

What is to be expected from Mr. Coxe, supplied with such ample and choice means for the execution of his arduous undertaking, few of our readers will be at any loss to judge. His former respectable labours will induce them to augur favourably of his present efforts, and we are deceived in our judgment if, on the whole, their hopes are not fully filled.

A neat and concise account of the origin of the princes of Hapsburgh introduces the work. The annals of this House, and of its eminent leader, Rudolph, cannot be unknown to readers of history, particularly to those who have perused

Mr. Planta's valuable *History of the Helvetic Confederacy*, even our accounts of that work in M. Rev. Vol. xxxii. N. S. pp. 161 and 405. Mr. Coxe has in course been indebted to the pages of that publication, which indeed he quotes: nevertheless, his sketch of Rudolph is masterly; and he is made to appear worthy of his high destiny. A profane expression of the Bishop of Basle, whom Rudolph had completely subdued, on hearing of his elevation, strongly paints the idea entertained of him by his cotemporaries; "Sit fast, great God, or Rudolph will occupy thy throne." Yet a very simple incident seems to have contributed more to Rudolph's exaltation than all his acknowledged merits; which were confined to too remote and narrow a sphere, to admit of his being raised by means of them to the summit which he afterward obtained. The author relates that

'Many circumstances contributed to favour his advancement, among which the most effectual were the views and interests of the seven Electors, by whom the right of nomination was at this time assumed; namely, the archbishops of Mentz, Cologne, and Treves, the king of Bohemia, Otho margrave of Brandenburg, Albert duke of Saxony, and Louis duke of Bavaria and count Palatine, who seems to have possessed a joint vote with his brother Henry. Of these the most strenuous in the cause of Rhodolph was Werner of Eppenstein, elector of Mentz. On his nomination to the archi-episcopal see of Mentz, Werner had repaired to Rome, in order to receive the confirmation of his office, and the pallium from the hands of the Pope; and as the road was infested with banditti, he was escorted by Rhodolph himself across the Alps, and treated on his return with equal cordiality and magnificence. Werner, captivated by his attentions, character, and talents, expressed a wish that he might live to repay the obligation. Such an opportunity now presented itself, and Werner used all his influence and intrigue to secure the nomination of Rhodolph. He secretly gained the Electors of Cologne and Treves; and found means to influence the secular Electors, by the prospect of a matrimonial alliance with their future chief, who had six daughters unmarried. His intrigues and recommendation were strongly supported by Frederic of Hohenzollern the friend and relation of Rhodolph, who had great influence with the secular Electors, contributed to remove all obstacles, and concluded the negotiation in his name.'

Rudolph figures so much in general history, that it is unnecessary for us to extract more than a few of his striking traits of his character. Speaking of the various salutary regulations and edicts which he enforced, Mr. Coxe observes:

'The principal and most useful, though the most difficult attempt, was to enforce the laws which prohibited the building and maintenance of fortresses not necessary for the security of the empire. This pro-

hibition had been generally neglected, and the number of fortresses had so greatly increased, that not only the superior princes, but even almost all the petty nobles possessed castles, from which they harassed the neighbouring countries by continual incursions. Rhodolph well knowing that while these fortresses were permitted to remain, the internal tranquillity of the empire could not be permanently established; he determined to carry the law into execution with the utmost rigour, and was rather encouraged than intimidated by the difficulty of the attempt. He condemned to death nine and twenty nobles of the most illustrious families of Thuringia, who had broken the public peace; and razed in one year seventy castles and strong holds, the habitation of banditti, or of powerful barons worse than banditti. In the prosecution of this design he acted with irreproachable impartiality; and his answer to a petition in behalf of the delinquent nobles deserves to be recorded: "Do not, I beseech you, interfere in favour of robbers, or endeavour to rescue them from that death which they deserve; for they are not nobles, but the most accursed robbers, who oppress the poor, and break the public peace. True nobility is faithful and just, offends no one, and commits no injury."

The whole of his reign, in which he was not engaged in military expeditions, was passed in visiting the Imperial cities; and if the numerous decrees and charters which he signed at the different places, did not prove his frequent journeys throughout the German empire, it would appear scarcely credible, that Rhodolph at so advanced an age could have transacted such a multiplicity of business, or have undergone such incessant fatigue. Hence he was justly called by a contemporary prince, *Lex animata*, or a living law, and has been since distinguished by historians, as the second founder of the German empire.—

We shall close this account of the great Founder of the House of Austria with a few anecdotes relating to his person and character. Rhodolph was above the ordinary stature, being nearly seven feet in height, but extremely slender; his head was small and almost bald, his complexion pale, his nose large and aquiline. His natural aspect was grave and composed; but he no sooner began to speak than his countenance brightened into animation. His manners were so captivating, and he possessed the art of persuasion in so eminent a degree, that, to use the expression of Dornavius, one of his panegyrists, "he fascinated persons of all ranks, as if with a love potion." He was plain, unaffected, and simple in his dress; and was accustomed to say that he considered the majesty of a sovereign as consisting rather in princely virtues than in magnificence of apparel.

Being engaged in hunting, he met between Fahr and Baden, a priest on foot, carrying the host to a sick person; and as the road was extremely dirty, and the torrents swollen with rain, he alighted, and gave his horse to the priest, saying, it ill became him to ride, while the bearer of Christ's body walked on foot; at the same time he expressed his gratitude and veneration to the Supreme Being, who had raised him from the huts of his ancestors, to the throne of the empire.

‘ After he was Emperor, being at Mentz in the midst of his officers, he saw Muller the citizen of Zurich, who had rescued him in the battle against the count of Regensburg. He instantly rose up to meet him, received him with the warmest demonstrations of friendship and regard, and conferred on him the honour of knighthood. Being asked why he lavished such favours on a person of no rank, he replied, “ When I was count of Hapsburgh, and fell into the hands of my enemies, this man rescued me, and mounted me on his own horse; and by his assistance I was delivered from almost inevitable destruction. It is my duty, therefore, to pay him every mark of distinction in my power, to whom, next to God, I owe the preservation of my life.”—

‘ He was by nature warm and choleric, but as he advanced in years he corrected this defect. Some of his friends expressing their wonder that since his elevation to the Imperial dignity he had restrained the vehemence of his temper, he replied, “ I have often repented of being passionate, but never of being mild and humane.” His heart was neither steeled nor corrupted by power, and the goodness of his disposition rose superior to the paltry consideration of his own private interest. To the tax-gatherers he said, “ The cry of distress has reached my ears; you compel travellers to pay duties which they ought not to pay, and to bear burthens which they cannot support. Do not unjustly seize what belongs to others; but take only your due. It is my duty to employ vigilance, and to promote justice and tranquillity, which I consider as the greatest blessings under heaven.” He was also easy of access, even to persons of the lowest condition. To his soldiers, who endeavoured to prevent the approach of some poor men, he observed, “ For God’s sake, let them alone, I was not elected Emperor to be secluded from mankind.”—

‘ He seems to have been no less distinguished for playful wit and pleasantry. Being at Mentz in 1288, he walked out early in the morning, dressed as usual in the plainest manner, and as the weather was cold, entered a baker’s shop to warm himself. The mistress, unacquainted with his person, peevishly exclaimed, “ Soldiers ought not to come into poor women’s houses ;” — “ Do not be angry, good woman,” returned the king of the Romans, with great complacency, “ I am an old soldier, who have spent all my fortune in the service of that rascal Rhodolph, and he suffers me to want, notwithstanding all his fine promises.” “ As you serve,” rejoined the woman, “ that fellow who has laid waste the whole earth, and devoured the poor, you have deservedly incurred all your misfortunes.” She then virulently abused the king of the Romans, adding, with great bitterness, that she and all the bakers in the town, except two, were ruined by his means; and compelled him to depart, by throwing a pail of water on the fire, which filled the room with smoke and vapour.

‘ Rhodolph, on sitting down to dinner, ordered his hostess to convey a boar’s head and a bottle of wine, to her neighbour the baker’s wife, as a present from the old soldier who had warmed himself in the morning by her fire, and then related the anecdote with much humour. When thus apprised of her mistake, the woman was

greatly terrified, and approaching the table, entreated forgiveness in the most suppliant manner. Rhodolph consented, on condition that she would repeat her abusive expressions, with which the woman faithfully complied, to the amusement and laughter of all who were present.

Historians, like the writers of romance, are too apt to sketch their characters as altogether bad, or uniformly good: but Mr. Coxe seems to be laudably and studiously on his guard against this prevalent defect; as is exemplified in his summary of the actions and conduct of Albert the son and successor of Rudolph:

‘ The character of Albert has been more stigmatized than it deserved by the passions or prejudices of historians; and seems to have suffered from too near a comparison with the splendid talents, insinuating manners, and winning disposition of his illustrious father. He was a tender and faithful husband, a fond and affectionate parent, and was in return almost adored by his family. He equally abhorred flattery and slander, possessed a just sense of propriety and decorum, a perfect controul over his passions, and was superior to the allurements of pleasure, or the attractions of ease. He was distinguished for military talents, and was scarcely inferior to any personage, who has obtained the admiration of mankind, in firmness, decision, activity, valour, promptitude, and energy. As chief of the empire, he held the reins of government with a vigorous hand; maintained the public peace with a vigilance equal to his father; and, though devout in the exercises of religion, resisted with becoming dignity the arrogant pretensions of the see of Rome, and curbed the encroaching spirit of the ecclesiastical Electors. But as a sovereign he was arrogant and despotic, of a restless and rapacious disposition, and he pursued his schemes for the advancement of his family with an inflexible pertinacity, and with little regard either to the feelings of pity or the sentiments of justice. Uncouth and vulgar in appearance, ferocious and unseemly in aspect, gloomy and reserved by habit and constitution, even his good qualities were obscured, and his failings exaggerated by his personal defects, and, to adopt the strong language of the Swiss historian (Planta), “ Virtue in him bore the semblance of selfishness.”

The reader will derive valuable instruction from the details of the effects of religious dissensions, which he will discover in the accounts here given of the affairs of Bohemia. Modern history is replete with instances of the mischiefs which confined notions of religious toleration have inflicted on the human race. The relations which respect Hungary, and which exhibit the gallant exploits of the brave Hunniades,—particularly his crowning atchievement, in which the hero nobly fell, we mean the delivery of Belgrade,—and the tale which records the black ingratitude of the degenerate Ladis-

laus Posthumus, will be perused by every reader of sensibility with the utmost interest.

The subsequent passages present us with transactions which ordinary historians are too apt to overlook, but which Mr. Coxe stands honorably distinguished by an anxiety to discover and exhibit. It is also no more than justice to ballance these services against the defects of another kind with which the monarch in question was chargeable :

‘ During the reign of Frederic, as well as in preceding times, various attempts were made for the maintenance of the public peace, by instituting a superior court of judicature, or Imperial Chamber, to which the princes, states, and nobles, might have recourse, instead of appealing to the sword. But most of these endeavours being frustrated by the difficulty of reconciling the prerogatives of the emperor with the privileges claimed for the Imperial Chamber, and providing for the maintenance of the judges, Frederic laboured to consolidate a confederacy, which, by its union and power, might awe the greater princes, repress banditti, and maintain the public tranquillity.

‘ On former occasions the states and towns had confederated for mutual support, either against the encroachments of the emperors, or the aggressions of the nobles ; and the nobles in their turn associated to resist the leagues of the towns. From this principle arose the Helvetic confederacy, the Hanseatic union, and the league of the commercial cities in Suabia, and on the Rhine ; and the counter confederacies of the nobles, of which that called the shield of St. George and the Lion still existed. Most of the preceding emperors, who had found these associations a considerable check on their authority, opposed their formation, and endeavoured to establish the principle, that no league could be formed without the consent of the chief. Frederic himself, in the early part of his reign, had been actuated by the same motive, and had used his utmost exertions to dissolve the Helvetic union ; but his want of power, and the failure of his attempts to establish the public peace, induced him to change his plan of policy.

‘ Suabia was the part of Germany best adapted for the fulfilment of his views, as it abounded with imperial towns, and being divided into numerous states and lordships without a superior head, was immediately dependent on the emperor and empire. Accordingly, after proclaiming a public peace for ten years, Frederic convened a meeting of the Suabian states, and induced them to accede to his plan. The ancient confederacy of St. George was adopted as the basis of the system ; but instead of being confined solely to the nobles, it comprehended princes, nobles, towns, and vassals. At the commencement, the confederacy consisted only of four prelates, three counts, sixteen knights, and six towns, and articles were framed for the direction of the union, the decision of disputes, the proportion of succours, and the admission of new members. The knights and turbulent barons, whose employment was warfare, and whose wealth was derived from plunder, were averse to a league which was calculat-

ed to repress their exactions. Many were however persuaded, and others compelled to accede, by the emperor, who threatened to punish their refusal with fines, and the ban of the empire; and before the close of the year, the confederacy amounted to twenty-two towns, thirteen prelates, twelve counts, and three hundred and fifty knights. This union was strengthened by the accession of the greater princes, both in Suabia, and the adjacent parts of the empire; and among its members were numbered Sigismund of Tyrol, the count of Wirtemberg, the margrave of Baden, the electors of Mentz and Treves, and the margraves Frederic and Sigismund of Brandenburg.

‘The good effects of this union were soon perceived; for one hundred and forty strong holds of nobles or banditti were demolished, and the first efforts of the league humbled the powerful House of Bavaria, who, to use the expressions of Frederic before the Diet, “had repeatedly insulted the majesty of the empire, and whose domestic dissensions, and ambitious projects, had incessantly disturbed the tranquillity of Germany.” George, duke of Bavaria Landshut, was compelled to make reparation for an injury committed by his officers on the abbot of Rogenburgh, a member of the league, and by its assistance, Frederic himself was enabled to curb the refractory spirit of Albert of Munich.’

Mr. Coxe introduces to his readers the son and successor of Frederic, by remarking that ‘to an aged, feeble, and parsimonious sovereign succeeded Maximilian, an active and liberal prince, in the prime of manhood, whose character and situation encouraged the hope of a glorious administration;’ and in a note we meet with a short disquisition on the singular name borne by this emperor :

‘The name of Maximilian had at this time never been borne by any of the Austrian family, and was an unusual appellation in Europe. The industry of the Austrian biographers has discovered a saint Maximilian, bishop of Lork, and martyr, in the third century; and they conjecture that the young prince received this name in consequence of a vow made by his father, during the siege of Vienna. But, with Fugger, we may with more probability ascribe the adoption of this name to the whimsical opinions of Frederic, who is said to have formed it, after consulting the stars, from combining the appellations of Fabius MAXIMUS and Paulus ÆMILIUS.’

If Mr. Coxe has failed in any part of his present undertaking, the defect arises not from a want of the requisite knowledge to do it justice; as will appear by the following quotations, taken from his account of the state of Germany, and the situations of its chiefs in the time of Maximilian :

‘Germany, which formed an extensive territory, important from its local position, supported a numerous population, comprised an assemblage of rich and flourishing towns, and supplied a military force superior in numbers, and equal in valour and discipline, to the troops

brood of any other country in Europe: It consisted of numerous sovereignties and states, independent of each other, and differing in extent and power; but all united in one system of government by means of a general Diet, and under the direction of a single chief. With all these advantages, Germany had maintained in former times, and was still capable of maintaining the preponderance among the nations of Europe; but from the jarring interests of its component parts, the circumscribed authority of the chief, and the division of the principal houses into numerous branches, it could never be brought to act with energy and vigour in external affairs, and its principal efforts were exerted in resisting foreign aggressions, and preserving internal tranquillity. This object was, however, less affected by public institutions than by family compacts among the princes, and separate associations among the states; of which the Hanseatic league in the north, and the Suabian league in the south, were the most conspicuous. The whole nation was absorbed in this single object; and to the maintenance of internal tranquillity sacrificed every consideration of public honour, military glory, and external advantage.' —

'As emperor of Germany, Maximilian was indeed treated with all the majesty of human authority, considered as the first sovereign in Europe, served by kings and electors, and with his single word could confer even the regal title. But in reality this vast power existed principally in theory; the kings and electors, who, on occasions of pomp and ceremony, performed the offices of his household, were either his equals or superiors; and when influenced by interest or caprice, did not scruple to resist his authority. He succeeded to the claims of his predecessors on the numerous imperial fiefs of Germany and Italy, and was supposed to be invested with the supreme jurisdiction over the extensive territories and dependencies of the empire; but in reality he did not possess the smallest portion of that domain which belonged to the ancient emperors, or a single town, castle, or foot of land, as head of the empire. Instead of stated revenues he was reduced to depend on the uncertain aids granted reluctantly by the Diet; and his judicial authority was diminished by the municipal jurisdictions which all the electors, and many of the princes possessed within the precincts of their own dominions.'

The impartiality of the historian induces him to state at length the conduct of Maximilian in the affair of the Bavarian succession; in which, it must be owned, he acted with laudable decision, distinguished personal bravery, justice, and generosity.

The situation of Venice, at the time of forming the league of Cambray, bears some resemblance to that of another country at the present moment. Mr. Coxe is, we think, rather severe on the late republic; and though facts undoubtedly exist which support his accusations, he himself accounts for this famous conspiracy of states on a ground different from that of resentment for misconduct, namely that

that of the interested views of the several parties to the confederacy;

‘ Maximilian found a similar disposition in the pope, the other states of Italy, and the kings of France and Arragon; for there was scarcely a power in the south of Europe, which this haughty and flourishing republic had not offended by its pride, injured by its rapacity, or betrayed by its perfidy. Louis the Twelfth coveted the possession of Brescia and Bergamo, which, during the administration of the Sforza family, they had dismembered from the duchy of Milan, and of Cremona and the Ghiradadda, which he had himself yielded to them as the price of their assistance during his Italian expeditions; he had been offended by their support of his enemies during the war for the kingdom of Naples, and his indignation was now redoubled by the conclusion of the separate armistice with the emperor. The king of Arragon, on his part, forgot the important aid which he had derived from the secret connivance or open support of the Venetians, to which he was principally indebted for the possession of Naples; and with that selfish policy, which marked all his actions, was anxious to deprive them of the maritime towns of Trani, Brindisium, Gallipoli, and Otranto, which had been mortgaged to them by the former Neapolitan kings of the house of Arragon. Julius the Second had reluctantly suffered the Venetians to retain possession of Faenza, Rimini, and Ravenna; and his pride was wounded by the disrespect which they testified towards the Roman See, and by their refusal to confirm his nomination of his nephew to the bishopric of Vicenza. The minor princes of Italy were eager to concur in hastening the downfall of Venice, whose incroaching and domineering spirit had kept them in perpetual apprehension; and their cupidity was stimulated by the prospect of sharing in her spoils. The duke of Savoy was desirous to obtain Cyprus; the Polesino of Rovigo tempted the duke of Ferrara; and the Florentines hoped to acquire Pisa, which, by the assistance of the Venetians, had hitherto opposed their arms.’

Though Frederic and his son Maximilian appear not advantageously in foreign affairs, it is indubitable that they paid most commendable attention to the internal concerns of the empire; and it is remarked by Mr. Coxe that

‘ However unsuccessful and wavering Maximilian may be deemed in his wild schemes of foreign politics, yet in the internal administration of his own territories, and of the empire, he was distinguished for the wisdom of his measures and the utility of his establishments. In 1500, he induced the Diet to adopt the system of Albert the Second, and to divide a part of the empire into districts or circles, each of which was charged with the maintenance of the public peace among its own members; but as the dominions of Austria and Burgundy were excluded, and as the electors refused to include their territories in the division, the new system was at first confined to Bavaria, Franconia, Suabia, Saxony, the Rhine, and Westphalia, which are termed the six ancient circles. The advantages of this division

division encouraged Maximilian to resume the project at the Diet of Cologne in 1512, by forming the territories of his family into the two circles of Austria and Burgundy. All the electors following his example, a new arrangement was made, by which the empire was divided into the ten circles of Austria, Burgundy, the Upper and Lower Rhine, Franconia, Bavaria, Suabia, Westphalia, and Upper and Lower Saxony. The affairs of each circle were to be regulated in an assembly or Diet; and over each was appointed a director for the maintenance of internal tranquillity, and a colonel or leader for military expeditions, and the care of the troops and fortresses. The director, who was generally the most powerful prince in each district, was nominated by the emperor, and the colonel by the states of the circle. Other regulations were at the same time sketched out, particularly the establishment of a senate or permanent council, to accompany the emperor, but these were not, at that time, carried into execution, and have since sunk into oblivion.

‘The constant and active part which Maximilian took in the transactions of the empire, and of Europe, has principally attracted the attention of historians, who have almost passed over in silence those of his own hereditary dominions. But their very silence proves the vigour and wisdom of his administration; for it evinces that his states were relieved from those troubles and disorders which mark the reigns of all his predecessors; and all his provinces exempted from the distresses and calamities of war, except those which were exposed to the attacks of the Venetians.’

‘The internal regulations which he made in his hereditary countries reflect the highest honour on his reign. Having first secured to them the advantages arising from the public peace, by forming them into a circle of the empire, he afterwards reduced the interior policy into a system, by subdividing them into the districts of Lower and Exterior Austria, and those into smaller districts, which were governed by separate courts. He first established in Austria various boards or colleges for the administration of justice, the management of the revenue, the direction of the ordnance, buildings, the affairs of the chace, and other rights of the sovereign. Over these he instituted a tribunal, since known by the name of the Aulic Council, which was to receive appeals, and to assist him with a written opinion in political affairs of importance. The same system was afterwards extended to Exterior Austria, by the establishment of councils of regency at Innspruck for the Tyrol, and at Encisheim for the other provinces. By these and other judicious regulations, and by the vigilance of his government, Maximilian retained his turbulent nobles in subjection, and kept his dominions in a state of uninterrupted tranquillity. His example produced a salutary effect, and under his reign the jurisprudence of Germany acquired a systematic consistency, by the introduction of similar aulic councils at the courts of the different princes.’

In consequence of his researches into German writers, the author has the merit of placing the characters of these two emperors in a more just light than most of our modern historians;

torians ; who, when speaking of them generally, copied from writers who were passing judgment only on their foreign transactions, and were not required to give a view of their whole conduct. In this way we are to account for the disadvantageous light in which Maximilian appears in the history of Guicciardini, from whom our English annalists seem to have taken their impressions.

When summing up his elaborate and interesting account of this Potentate, Mr. Coxe says :

‘ Of all the successors of Rhodolph of Hapsburgh, Maximilian is the most remarkable for his personal and mental qualifications. He was not above the middle size, but his limbs were muscular and well proportioned, and he possessed that peculiar conformation of body, which unites the greatest strength with the greatest activity. To adopt the description of the Austrian biographer, his countenance was manly and animated, his eyes blue, his cheeks full and round, his nose aquiline, his mouth small and handsome, and his chin raised and pointed ; his gait and gesture were graceful and majestic, his tone of voice melodious, and his manners dignified, amiable, frank, and conciliating. Though temperate and sober, he possessed a convivial disposition, and inherited a considerable portion of that playful raillery and facetiousness, for which the great founder of his House was so remarkable.

‘ No prince ever displayed more unpromising appearances in his infancy and youth, or was ever more successful in conquering the disadvantages of nature and education. Till the tenth year of his age, the indistinctness of his articulation procured him the appellation of The Dumb Prince ; and yet this infirmity was afterwards so entirely removed, that he commanded the admiration of all, by his consummate eloquence, and by the extraordinary facility with which he spoke the Latin, French, German, Italian, and several other languages. He received the early part of his education under Peter Engelbert, a man of piety, but a pedant, who disgusted his royal pupil by his dry and tedious manner of communicating instruction. Yet Maximilian, thus circumstanced in early years, when habits are generally formed which continue through life, became, by his own industry and application, one of the most learned and accomplished princes of the age. He was remarkable for his multifarious knowledge in the whole circle of the arts and sciences ; and promoted the cultivation of literature by his patronage and example.’

Having described his passion for hazardous exercises, and for the feats of the tournament in particular, and having related an instance of his signal success in this career, Mr. C. observes that

‘ No prince of his age was more distinguished for those qualities and acquirements, which form the character of a warrior, than Maximilian. His constitution was capable of supporting all the changes and severities of the seasons ; he was patient of fatigue, active and enterprising even to rashness, ardent for glory, and possessed a mind superior

superior to dangers and difficulties. He surpassed his contemporaries in all military exercises, and was no less intimately acquainted with the theory than with the practice of war. He improved the foundry of cannon, the construction of fire arms, and the tempering of defensive armour; made various discoveries in pyrotechny, and was master of all the science of gunnery and fortification known in his times. He first introduced into his dominions a standing army, facilitated the evolutions and discipline of his forces by dividing them into companies, troops, and regiments, and armed them with a new species of lance, which came into general use, and obtained, for the German infantry, the name of lantzknecchte or lansquenets.'

Though general history records the proofs of this monarch's versatility and prodigality, it has been left to Mr. Coxe to furnish most in detail to the English reader those of his extravagant vanity: but vanity, we believe, seldom exists in this degree without being bottomed on considerable merit. This weakness of the emperor was more fantastic, but not more excessive, than the similar infirmity of the philosophical orator, the pride and boast of Rome, and the delight of all future ages:

'Maximilian (says Mr. Coxe) possessed the pardonable vanity of wishing to transmit his family, name, and achievements to posterity; but which, like his other pursuits, he carried to excess. He wrote numerous treatises on every branch of human knowledge; on religion, morality, the military art, architecture, his own inventions, and even on hunting, hawking, gardening, and cookery. He sent throughout Germany persons of learning to search the archives of convents and abbies, to collect genealogies of his ancestors, and to examine the repositories of the dead for monumental inscriptions. From these materials, Manlius, one of his secretaries, compiled a history of his family, which Maximilian was accustomed to peruse, and which, almost in his dying moments, contributed to his amusement and consolation. After the manner of the ancients his table was constantly attended by literati, whose office was to collect his sayings, and record his apophthegms; and he was accustomed to dictate to his secretaries accounts of his life and actions, and descriptions of his numerous adventures and hair-breadth escapes. To these circumstances we owe a wonderfully minute account of the character, acquirements, and adventures of Maximilian; but to these circumstances we must likewise attribute that air and colouring of romance which is cast over his whole history, and which exhibits him as a being endowed with supernatural faculties, and moving in a superior sphere, or like the heroes which figure in eastern fable, and the annals of chivalry. Thus he is said to have assaulted lions in their cages, and forced them to repress their native ferocity; he fell from towers unhurt; he escaped from shipwreck, and from fire; and, when lost amid the rocks and precipices of the Tyrol, whither he had penetrated in his favourite occupation of hunting the chamois, and on the point of perishing with hunger and fatigue, he is extricated by an angel in the shape of a peasant boy.'

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The author thus concludes his able and faithful sketch of this singular Prince ;

‘ Notwithstanding all the exaggerations of flattery, or the glosses of self-love, Maximilian was doubtless extraordinary, both as a man and a prince ; and though too much depreciated by modern historians, who seem only to have discerned his failings, his misfortunes, and his wants, he rose superior to his age, by his multifarious endowments of body and mind, and was the wonder, the boast, and the envy of his contemporaries. To conclude, had his means been equal to his abilities, or had his enterprising spirit, and his active, acute, and versatile mind been more under the guidance of judgment and discretion, his reign would have formed one of the most brilliant periods in Austrian history, and he would have been deservedly held up as the greatest sovereign of his time.’

In regard to the reigns of Maximilian and his predecessor, we consider Mr. Coxe as by far the best guide to whom the English reader can commit himself.

During the sway of Maximilian, began that grand revolution in religion which distinguished the commencement of the sixteenth century ; and which, though it was a signal benefit, gave rise to calamities that scarcely ceased to afflict humanity till near the middle of the seventeenth. To this momentous event, Mr. Coxe has paid that attention which was due from a faithful historian, and a person of his profession. Indeed, this mighty change invites the attention of the philosopher and the statesman almost as strongly as that of the divine. Revolutions in the state of the human mind present more interest, and yield more instruction, than those which affect the arrangements of communities and empires, and which are the consequences of organized violence. The revolt from the Pope, and the expulsion of Aristotle from the schools, are ampler themes for observation and reflection than the fall of kingdoms ; and the changes in religious faith and worship, wrought by Zuinglius, Luther, and Calvin, with those which were effected in philosophy by Bacon, Descartes, and Newton, more forcibly attract the cultivated mind, than the conquests of Alexander, Timur, or Napoleon : for, in this comparison, the revolutions operated by the devastators of the globe are coarse and vulgar matters.

The length to which this portion of the present article has extended will oblige us to confine ourselves to scanty extracts from this interesting and well executed part of the work. Some incidents, not generally to be found, induce us to copy the following passage :

‘ Martin Luther, the author of this extraordinary revolution, was the son of John Luther, a refiner of metals, and was born in 1483, at Eisleben, in Saxony. He acquired the first rudiments of learning in the house of his father, who having obtained a considerable share
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in the mines of Saxony, settled at Mansfield, where he became chief magistrate. He continued his studies in the universities of Eisenach and Magdeburgh, made a great proficiency in the Latin language, and, in 1501, repaired to the university of Erfurth, where he took the degree of master of arts. He intended to study the civil law, but was diverted from his purpose by the death of a friend, who was struck dead by lightning at his side. This awful event made a deep impression on his mind, naturally serious and devout; he retired, without the knowledge of his parents, into a monastery of Augustin friars at Erfurth, and assumed the habit of the order, in the twenty-second year of his age. During his residence in this monastery, he discovered a copy of the Latin Bible, which, at that period, was interdicted to the laity, and scarcely known to the clergy. His curiosity being stimulated by the discovery, he studied the sacred writings with extraordinary ardour and perseverance; and to this accident may be attributed his adoption of those opinions which produced the reformation, and the skill and success with which he defended his principles against the papal advocates. At length, the reputation which he acquired for sanctity and learning, induced Frederic the Wise, elector of Saxony, to appoint him a professor of philosophy in the new university of Wittemberg, at the recommendation of Staupitz, vicar general of the Augustin order; and the youthful professor justified the choice, by discarding both the form and expressions of the old scholastic system, and delivering lectures, which were fraught with unusual knowledge, with bold and novel opinions, and distinguished by perspicuity and eloquence.

The succeeding reflections of the author on the great event in question are just in themselves, and becoming in a Protestant Clergyman :

• In reviewing this eventful period in the history of the world, we cannot repress a sentiment of wonder and veneration at the varied, contradictory, and seemingly trifling means which arrested the progress of error and licentiousness under the guise of religion, and restored purity of worship, and the doctrines of the Gospel, in all their primitive simplicity. We see a controversy arising from a single and inconsiderable question, and gradually expanding, till it embraced all the errors of the church; we see an obscure monk shaking off the prejudices of his age, profession, and nation, whose very defects of character and temper become instrumental in the promotion of truth; and though environed with all the terrors of papal and imperial authority, yet combating or averting the threatened dangers by intrepidity and prudence, or escaping from them by instances of good fortune almost miraculous; we observe the cause of the Gospel promoted and strengthened by those who were most interested and most inclined to oppose and oppress it; we observe the Reformation secured and established by the same prince who had brought it to the verge of destruction. By the impulse of the same motive we see the kings of France, while they persecuted their own protestant subjects, consolidating the league for the protection of those in Germany; the Turks, the enemies of Christendom, contributing to weaken and divide

divide its opponents ; Charles himself stimulated by personal resentment or motives of policy to become the protector of that doctrine which it was the object of his whole reign to depress ; and even the pope himself coming forward, at the most dangerous crisis, to join in a league against the interests of that church of which he was the head. We observe all these objects accomplished in the midst of contending parties and jarring interests, and even when the Protestants were divided, and actuated with scarcely less antipathy against each other than the Catholics against them. In reviewing all these stupendous revolutions, we cannot but acknowledge the wisdom of Providence, making the most opposite circumstances and the most hostile characters contribute to the same end, and turning to the accomplishment of his great purposes all the perverseness and caprice of human passions, and all the perplexed views of human policy.'

In this part of his undertaking, Mr. Coxe seems very much to tread in the track of the admirable Beausobre ; who, to a consummate knowledge of his subject, added eminent judgment and taste, and in whom the comprehensive views of a philosopher were united with the charity of a christian.

The reign of Charles V. being so well known to the English reader, we shall omit all reference to Mr. Coxe's account of that prince's singular and eventful career ; only observing that even those, who have not been prevented by Dr. Robertson from perusing the histories of Guicciardini and Sleidan, will not look in vain into Mr. C.'s volumes for information beyond that which may be found in those excellent performances.

Some of the subjects, on which the author necessarily treats, are of a most inspiring nature ; and scarcely any writer has given an account of the Swiss struggles, without having his genius worked up to the highest pitch. Mr. Coxe's relations are an exception ; and his narratives of these almost godlike efforts are remarkably tame as well as improperly concise. Yet it should be recollected that he has before sketched these scenes ; and that these grand objects, having become familiar to him, were prevented from exciting in him the animation and the glow to which first views give rise. In the more interesting portions of the division of this history which we have been considering, the author may be compared with some of the most distinguished historians of this and other countries ; and if he display not that consummate mastery which some of them manifest, still is he intitled with the great author of *the Spirit of Laws* to make use of the well known exclamation of the Italian painter,—*Io anche sono pittore.*

[To be continued.]

Art. II. *Illustrations of the scenery of Killarney and the surrounding country.* By Isaac Weld, Esq. M.R.I.A. 4to. pp. 230. and 19 Plates and Maps. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

TO the pre-eminent beauty of the lake of Killarney, all its visitors bear unanimous testimony; and it is extremely natural that the artist or the man of taste, who has amused himself with minutely examining and depicting its rich and romantic scenery, should project the renewal of his pleasure in attempting, by appropriate descriptions, aided by graphic skill, to convey his own delightful sensations to others. Unfortunately, however, language, with all its combinations and shadings of epithets, is inadequate to the full representation of Landscape; and even with the modern accompaniment of plates*, it very imperfectly executes its office. Descriptions purely picturesque, even when ably managed, soon become fatiguing to the reader; who cannot, by any combination of verbal expressions, be enabled to present to his imagination the exact prospect which the writer labours to delineate. Words may convey an idea of wood and water, of rocks and islands, of mountains and torrents, of indented shores, of projecting promontories, and indeed of all the striking characters of rich natural scenery: but from no verbal account could the actual spot which an author endeavours to represent be perfectly transferred to the canvas.

For these reasons, writers ought not to be too prolix in their details of rural scenery; and it appears to us that Mr. Weld has not been sufficiently considerate in the compilation of a great part of this volume: which, though relieved by episodes of anecdotes, history, antiquities, mineralogy, rural sports and occupations, &c. and embellished with numerous beautiful stroke-engravings, recounts the beauties of the lake

* Engravings, though they contribute to give a more distinct idea of particular spots than any purely verbal account can afford, are nevertheless defective in some respects. They may present us with an accurate outline, but they help us very imperfectly to form a notion of magnitude and distance. In some views of the lake of Geneva, Mont Blanc appears in the back ground: but this king of European mountains loses his superlative grandeur in the drawing, and is not sufficiently distinguished from other mountains which, from being nearer, subtend an equal visual angle. We must remember, also, that plates exhibit only portions of a landscape; and that we want the *panorama*, or the *periorama*, in order to have the full effect produced in nature. Still, however, the parcels of scenery which a series of plates exhibits, if they cannot afford the impression of a whole, furnish us with a tolerably exact notion of parts in detail.

of Killarney with a minuteness which many persons will deem monotonous. Making the complete circuit of the upper, lower, and middle lakes, he notices every feature and character of their varied and intricate shores; enlarging on each portion of the diversified landscape, and endeavouring to inspire his readers with the same enthusiasm which he felt in the progress of his survey of this enchanting region.

We must allow, however, that Mr. Weld discovers good taste, and offers the result of his observation with great neatness and appropriateness of phrase; and if, in retracing his picturesque rambles round the lake, he be, as we have intimated, redundant, still he is generally amusing and often instructive. In the subjoined tour to the south-west coast of Ireland, many interesting particulars are inserted, respecting that region of the United Kingdom; particulars which are creditable to the Irish character, and demonstrate the great improvements which their Island is capable of receiving.

The work commences with a general description of the waters of Killarney, divided into the upper, middle (or Turk), and lower lakes:

‘ The Lake of Killarney is situated nearly in the centre of the maritime county of Kerry, on the confines of a chain of lofty mountains. The space included between this chain and the ocean, on the west, containing upwards of thirty square miles, is entirely occupied by other mountains of still greater magnitude, amongst which are those called Magillicuddy’s reeks, computed to be the most elevated in Ireland. In general, the disposition of these mountains is very irregular; but, as they approach the sea, they form short ridges, terminating on the coast in bold and rugged headlands.

‘ This mountainous region abounds with lakes. They are mostly found in the depths of the valleys; but some are situated on the sides of the mountains, at a great elevation, in cavities resembling the craters of volcanos. The one known by the name of the Devil’s Punch-bowl, near the summit of Mangerton, in the vicinity of Killarney, is at least fifteen hundred feet above the level of the sea; and after heavy rains discharges a large stream, which rolls down the mountain in a succession of cataracts, distinguishable by their white foam at the distance of many miles.

‘ Of these numerous lakes, the largest as well as the lowest is that of Killarney. It may be considered, indeed, an immense reservoir for the waters of the surrounding country, supplied by the overflowings of other lakes, by rills from the adjoining mountains, and by rivers which fall into it after having been augmented during their long course by countless tributary streams. The only outlet to this extensive basin is the clear and rapid river Laune, which conveys the surplus water into the Atlantic ocean through the bay of Dingle.

‘ Nor is Killarney less pre-eminent above all the other lakes of Kerry, on account of beauty than extent: for whilst the shores of

the latter bear no traces of cultivation, and are rarely distinguished by any striking features from the dreary wastes which surround them, its enchanting banks, singled out as it were by Nature for the display of some of her choicest productions, present the charming variety of a rich and adorned landscape, contrasted with the picturesque wildness of mountain and forest scenery.

‘ The lake consists of three distinct bodies of water. Of these, the first, which is called the upper lake, lies embosomed amidst the mountains: the others, situated at the exterior base of the chain, are bounded at one side alone by mountains; and in the opposite direction they open to a cultivated country, whose surface is diversified by innumerable hills. The two last divisions are nearly upon the same level, and lie contiguous to each other, being separated merely by a narrow peninsula, and some small islands, between which there are channels passable for boats; but the upper lake stands three miles distant, at the head of a navigable river which flows through a romantic valley or defile. Near the termination of its course, this river divides into two branches, one of which flows peaceably into the bay of Glena, on the great or lower lake; the other, forcing its mazy way through a rocky channel, issues with considerable impetuosity into the middle lake, under the woods of Dinis island.’

After this introductory view of the grand object to be explored, we are led through the whole in detail; are conducted to Mucruss; Turk island; the northern shore of the great lake; the river Flesk; Dunloh castle; Ross island; O’Sullivan’s cascade; Mahony’s point; Glena-bay; Brickeen and Dinis islands; the passage through the old weir bridge to the river which unites the upper and middle lakes; the Eagle’s Nest; the upper lake; Ronayn’s island, &c. &c.

In addition to the general account of the lake, Mr. Weld subjoins particular descriptions. At p. 124, the middle or Turk lake is thus delineated:

‘ The middle or Turk-lake is about two English miles in length, and somewhat less than one in breadth: it is bounded on the south by Turk-mountain, from which it derives its name, and on the opposite side by the woods and rocks of the peninsula of Mucruss. The mountain displays little variety either in its water line or on its surface. It is marked by no bold precipices, by no glens; and, though it rises steeply from the lake, is in most parts easy of access; but the deep gloom which it spreads over the water at its base renders the scene extremely solemn. A large tract of this mountain has been lately planted by Colonel Herbert, which, when more advanced, will diversify the surface and adorn the landscape. The improvements of the same gentleman along the eastern shore appear to much advantage from the water.

‘ The peninsula on this side presents nearly the same aspect as on that washed by the lower lake. Its rocks are excavated in a similar manner by the attrition of the waves; but they have been more deeply undermined, and larger fragments of them have been detached, and precipitated

precipitated into the lake. Nearly opposite to the mines, an immense mass of rock and earth has fallen, which claims attention not less on account of its picturesque form, than the extraordinary mixture it exhibits of various mineral substances. Devil's-island is not less an object of curiosity; though now considerably distant from the shore, it appears evidently to have once formed a part of the peninsula.

‘ Such striking instances of the powerful operation of the waves on this side of the peninsula, would lead to a supposition that Turk was exposed to more frequent and more violent storms than the lower lake; for the stone is nearly of the same quality. The fact, however, is directly opposite to this; for the same winds which disturb the former, also affect the latter; whereas it frequently happens that the lower lake is much agitated, when the waters of Turk remain sheltered, and present a smooth unruffled surface.’

We find also a detail of the beauties of the upper lake, which in picturesque scenery surpasses both the others :

‘ The upper lake is situated in the midst of a stupendous amphitheatre of mountains, and displays the most wild and romantic scenery. Its length is nearly the same as that of Turk, its breadth somewhat inferior. The mountains which bound it on each side are a continuation of those of the defile, and are characterized by similar features; but they are much loftier, and their parts are all on a grander scale: the glens are deeper; the woods more extensive, and of older growth; the rivers larger; and the falls more lofty and precipitate. The mountains situated at the upper extremity of the lake are the most elevated, as well as the most varied in their outline; amongst which Magillicuddy's reeks rise pre-eminent in grandeur above all the rest. They are seen, as already described, from the lower lake; but their appearance on this side is so very different, that they would scarcely be recognised for the same. Instead of an assemblage of conical peaks, they here display a long craggy ridge, which seems to be reduced like a wedge to a very narrow breadth, at the summit; and, on ascending, it is found not to be less narrow than it appears from below. Their height is about three thousand feet, and they are seldom unobscured by clouds; a circumstance which contributes to render their aspect, at times, peculiarly sublime.’ *

Many curious particulars are interwoven with this picturesque narrative. The Abbey of Irrelagh, being a favourite place of burial, introduces a digression on the funerals of the Irish; the view of Ross-castle affords an opportunity of narrating the circumstances of its siege and capture by the parliament army; that of O'Donoghoe's prison excites Mr. W. to relate the legendary tale of the antient prince of that name; and that of

* Our readers will recollect, and may compare with the preceding descriptions, Sir Rd. Hoare's late account of the same scenes; M. R. for September last, p. 57, &c.

Innisfallen furnishes a plea for observations on the ancient state of Ireland, its monastic institutions, and early Irish manuscripts. Of the latter, Mr. W. mentions two, one called *the Book of Ballymote*, and the other *the Annals of the Four Masters*; which had partly been translated under the direction of the Royal Irish Academy, but, on making the discovery that the mass of legendary fictions exceeded that which bore the characters of genuine history, the translation was discontinued. We give a specimen of the contents of these MSS.

‘ *The Book of Ballymote* commences with an account of the creation, and represents the Deity at a loss to find a name for the newly created man. Four angels are dispatched to the four quarters of the universe, each of whom returns with the name of a particular star. The initial letters of the names of the four stars are put together, and the man is called A-D-A-M.

‘ *The Annals of the Four Masters*, so called from having been compiled by four monks of Donegal, about the year 1636, from the most esteemed and ancient histories of Ireland that were then extant, begin, like the Book of Ballymote, with an account of the first inhabitants of the globe. They narrate with much precision the story of a small tribe, descended from one of the sons of Noah, which departs from Scythia in quest of the land furthest to the west, which is supposed to have been promised to their tribe in a prophecy. After passing through Egypt, the adventurers embark for Crete; thence they proceed along the shores of Africa to Spain, in which last country they settle, under a belief that there was no land more westward. Here they build a very lofty tower on the sea-shore, with a city called Brigantium. After remaining for three generations, however, in Spain, the chief of the tribe, on a remarkably clear tranquil evening, descries from the summit of the tower the coast of Ireland, still further to the west. The error being thus discovered, it is immediately determined to leave Spain: a fleet is prepared; the whole tribe embarked; and having arrived safely in Ireland, that country, on minute investigation, confirmed by numberless portentous signs, is ascertained to be really the promised land.’

Not merely the stationary scenery of the lake, but its accidental varieties and peculiarities are noticed by Mr. Weld; who expatiates on the effects of a humid atmosphere on the scenery, on the agitations of the water produced by hurricanes and torrents of air from the surrounding mountains, on an extraordinary phenomenon sometimes visible at sun-set, and on singular echoes by which the traveller is astonished. The optical illusion is thus represented:

‘ Occasionally an effect is produced by the setting sun, on the range of mountains bounding the lake, not less beautiful than rare, and totally differing from what I remember to have seen in other mountainous countries; though doubtless, in particular situations, the same appearance may result from the variations of the atmosphere.

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I can only attempt to give an idea of it by describing it as displaying the mountains in a transparent state, and suffused with a lively purple hue. Varying however from the aerial aspect of distant mountains, all the objects upon them, rocks, woods, and even houses, are distinctly visible,—more so, indeed, than at noon day; whilst at the same time their forms appear so unsubstantial, so ethereal, that one might almost fancy it possible to pass through them without resistance. I happened to be alone when I first witnessed this singular and beautiful phenomenon; and having communicated it to some friends who were with me at Killarney, we several times walked down to the lake when the state of the atmosphere seemed propitious; but being frequently disappointed in our hopes of beholding it, my description began to pass for the mere creation of fancy: at last, however, the mountains put on this magical aspect, and incredulity instantly gave place to admiration and delight. This appearance is very transient, continuing only for about ten minutes, whilst the sun approaches the earth and is sinking below the horizon. The mountains on which it is observable are Tomies, and those which lie next in the chain towards the west.'

Though the singular echoes in one part of the lake of Killarney have often been mentioned, their effects have never perhaps been more fully displayed than by Mr. Weld:

'It is scarcely in the power of language to convey an adequate idea of the extraordinary effect of the echoes under this cliff, whether they repeat the dulcet notes of music, or the loud discordant report of a cannon. Enchantment here appears to have resumed her reign, and those who listen are lost in amazement and delight.

'To enjoy the echoes to the utmost advantage, it is necessary that a number of musicians should be placed on the banks of the river; about fifty yards below the base of the cliff; while the auditors, excluded from their view, seat themselves on the opposite bank, at some distance above the cliff, behind a small rocky projection. Were a stranger conducted hither ignorant of this arrangement, and unprepared by any previous description for the illusory effect of the echo, I am persuaded he would be unable to form a tolerable conjecture, as to the source of the sounds, or the number of the instruments. The primary notes are quite lost; whilst those which are reverberated meet the ear increased in strength, in brilliancy, and in sweetness. Sometimes it might be supposed that multitudes of musicians, playing upon instruments formed for more than mortal use, were concealed in the caverns of the rock; or behind the trees on different parts of the cliff; at others, when a light breeze favours the delusion, it seems as if they were hovering in the air. At intervals the treble sounds of flutes and clarionets,

In sweet vibration thrilling o'er the skies,
are alone heard; and then again, after a short suspension,
The clanging horns swell their sweet winding notes,
 and load the trembling air
With various melody.

But notwithstanding the occasional swell and predominance of certain instruments, the measure of the melody is not impaired, nor do the notes come confusedly to the ear: the air which is played should, however, be very slow, and the harmony simple, affording a frequent repetition of perfect chords.

When the music has subsided, whilst every auditor still remains in a state of breathless admiration, it is usual to discharge a cannon from the promontory opposite to the cliff, which never fails to startle, and to stun the ear, ill prepared as it must be for the shock, after dwelling upon the sweet melody which has preceded it. The report of the gun produces a discordant crash, as if the whole pile of rocks were rent asunder; and the succeeding echoes resemble a tremendous peal of thunder. During a favourable state of the atmosphere, upon which much depends, twelve reverberations, and sometimes more, may be distinctly counted; and what appears extraordinary, after the sound has been totally lost, it occasionally revives, becomes louder and louder for a few seconds, and then again dies away. ●

‘ Now seems it far and now anear,
Now meets, and now eludes the ear;
Now seems some mountain's side to sweep,
Now dies away in valley deep.’

Besides the map of Killarney, the general view of the lower lakes, (an outline,) and vignettes containing views from the Green Hills and the Rocks from Mahony's point, we have the following distinct engravings, which are reputable to the artists Landseer, Middiman, Smith, Storer, Greig, and the late Mr. Byrne: viz. South-east and South-west views of Mucruss abbey—Flesk bridge—Dunloh castle—Ross castle—views from Ross bay and Ross island—Glena bay—view under Dinis island—River between the lakes—the Eagle's Nest—view on the upper lake—cottage on Ronayn's island—and the upper lake from D°.

Quitting the level surface of the lake, Mr. Weld enters on the sublime occupation of climbing mountains, visiting the summits of Magillicuddy's reeks, and those of Gheraun-tuel and Manger-ton mountains. In his descent from the latter, he encountered some danger, being suddenly enveloped in a thick mist, which is not unusual on those heights: but, following a rill, he at last reached the plain, and arrived safe at the neat little town of Killarney. Hence he makes an excursion to *Kilmallock*, which he describes as the Balbec or Palmyra of Ireland; and he bestows a page or two on the account of its ruins.

The last section of this work exhibits details of the author's tour to the South Western coast, which include short notices respecting Cork, Kinsale, the Wicklow gold mine, Skibbereen, Ballymore, Cape Clear Island, Crookhaven, Bantry, Reen, Bearehaven, Dursey Island, and Nedheen. A glance at the
map

map of this portion of the Irish coast discovers its beautiful indentations, by which it promises to afford to shipping the finest harbours; and when we read also of its bold and stupendous rocks, of its deep and transparent waters even close to the land, and of its woods in some places hanging over the shore so as to come in contact with the yards of vessels, we must be impressed with a persuasion not only of its superlative charms in the eye of the picturesque traveller, but of the advantages which such a country is capable of affording to a commercial people.

ART. III, *A Chronological History of the Voyages and Discoveries in the South Sea or Pacific Ocean.* Part II. From the Year 1579 to the Year 1620. Illustrated with Charts and other Plates. By James Burney, Captain in the Royal Navy. 4to. pp. 490. 1l. 14s. Boards. Nicol and Son, &c. 1806.

AFTER due time, we are furnished with the second volume of Captain Burney's History of Discoveries in the South Sea. Our readers will recollect that the author, having proposed a convenient classification of the general History of Discoveries into six parts, has himself undertaken that division, in which opportunity had rendered him peculiarly competent to act both the historian and the annotator of early discovery; he himself having sailed with Captain Cook in his last two voyages.

In his former publication, Captain Burney very well illustrated his own remarks on the compression of a subject as distinct from injurious abridgment; and those who peruse the second volume will have to admire the continuance of this most useful discrimination, by which no remark of importance to Geography or Navigation is passed unnoticed, nor any incident characteristic either of the several voyagers or of the people discovered is omitted. Indeed, the original accounts, on which Capt. B. has almost exclusively founded his history, are not very voluminous; few of them having been written for the public eye. At present, we too often meet with large histories of voyages of little moment, as if the advantage of the bookseller were more consulted than that of the public.

Captain Burney having closed his first volume with the famous voyage of Sir Francis Drake, who returned to England in 1580, he commences his second with relating the consequences of an enterprise naturally so alarming to the Spanish settlements in South America, which had now become highly important to the mother country. The Viceroy
of

of Peru had in vain dispatched Pedro Sarmiento from Callao in pursuit of Drake; and on the return of the ships so employed, Sarmiento was sent to examine the Strait of Magalhães, with the view of fortifying the only passage to the South Sea then known. The instructions under which Sarmiento sailed are here given, and appear singularly judicious: according to them the Journal of the voyage was written, and preserved with unusual care; and it furnishes an excellent document of the state of navigation in the 16th century: for which, and for geographical information, this voyage is chiefly remarkable. Capt. B. has inserted specimens of the Journal (p. 7.), and has furnished in his usual manner some useful remarks on the geography, illustrated by a particular chart. An attempt, perhaps the earliest recorded, to ascertain the longitude at sea by lunar observation, occurs in the latter part of this voyage.

Sarmiento, sailing from Lima with two ships, commenced his examination before he arrived at the Strait of Magalhães, by penetrating the intricate Gulf of Santissima Trinidad, situated north of the western entrance; and here he persevered a long time, but without success, in seeking a junction with the Strait. On leaving the Gulf of Trinidad, he was deserted by one of his ships; which circumstance, however, did not prevent him from entering the Strait of Magalhães, where he pursued the prescribed examination with great industry for a full month. Two places near the eastern entrance of the Strait seemed to him well adapted for defending the passage, and he hastened to Europe to make this representation to the Spanish government.

It sometimes happens even to calm and judicious men, when employed to examine the expediency of a favourite project, that their expectations are not realized when the experiment is tried. Sarmiento earnestly recommended that the Strait should be fortified, and that suitable colonies should be settled there; and this proposal, though strenuously opposed by the duke of Alba and others, was adopted from an apprehension that otherwise the English would anticipate the Spaniards in this measure.

In 1581, the most powerful armament, which up to that time had been sent to America, consisting of twenty-three ships, and conveying 3500 men, sailed from Seville. A part of this force was destined for the colony of the Strait, under the command of Sarmiento; and so fully was the mind of the Spanish monarch (Philip II.) occupied on fortifying the Strait, that the whole of this large fleet were ordered to sail thither to assist in establishing the intended colony before they proceeded to their ulterior destination. Never was an expedition

dition more disastrous from its outset to its conclusion : five of the ships were wrecked on the coast of Spain ; owing to subsequent losses and desertions, no more than five ships entered the Strait of Magalhanes, which they did not accomplish till February 1584, two years and a half after their departure from Spain ; and of these five ships, one was immediately wrecked on the coast of Patagonia, and three deserted Sarmiento, who was then left with only his own ship. The intended colonists had been landed to the number of 400 men and 30 women, and two towns were marked out by Sarmiento. He himself, however, was driven from the Strait by stress of weather at the end of May ; and the colony was left in a situation almost destitute, the repeated efforts of Sarmiento to supply their wants proving ineffectual. In the following March, 1585, he sailed reluctantly for Spain, but was taken in his passage by the English.

Sarmiento had certainly represented the Strait as narrower than in reality it is, but his general conduct was that of a steadfast and careful commander, however unfortunate. The dismal catastrophe of his colony was known only from subsequent voyages of foreigners through the Strait.—Capt. B. remarks on this cruel negligence of the Spanish government, and on the project of Sarmiento, in a strain admirably judicious :

‘ The Spanish writers term this expedition the most disastrous of any which to that time had been sent by their nation to the *Strait of Magalhanes*. They might have added, likewise, the most discreditable to their nation, for the negligence and indifference with which their countrymen in the *Strait* were suffered to perish.

‘ At the time the Spaniards undertook to fortify the passage of the *Strait*, the probability of a passage to the South of the *Tierra del fuego* had been surmised, but without obtaining a degree of credit that could make it a consideration of much weight. The *Strait* continued to be regarded as the key to the *Pacific Ocean*, the exclusive possession of which, if attainable, was certainly a desirable object to the Spaniards. Sarmiento, the great advocate for the plan, and who rested his reputation upon its success, had, as already shewn, under-rated the distance of the opposite shores of the *Strait* from each other ; but it is not to be doubted that if the settlement had prospered, the ships of other European nations would have been deterred from those enterprises to the *South Sea*, which almost immediately followed the knowledge of Sarmiento's failure. The contrast arising from these enterprises furnishes argument little favourable to human nature, and too strongly evinces that the best motives are not the most powerful springs of action: Whilst the Spaniards were unmoved by the distressed condition of their countrymen, and readily resigned themselves to the belief that all

all attempts to relieve them must be vain, the seamen of other nations, allured by the love of gold, with the greatest alacrity opposed themselves to the dangers which deterred the Spaniards from the better cause.

‘The reproach, however, does not, properly speaking, attach to the Spanish nation, but to the individuals who at that time held the powers of government.’

Among the first of those whom the love of Spanish wealth led to follow the steps of Drake through the Strait, was Mr. Thomas Cavendish, an Englishman, who sailed from Plymouth with three small vessels in 1586. After having touched on the coast of Africa and at St. Sebastian, he discovered and entered the harbour on the coast of Patagonia, called Port Desire, and remained there ten days. Leaving this port, on the evening of the eighth day he anchored near the eastern entrance of the Strait; and while he lay at this anchorage, lights were seen on the shore during the night, which were answered from the ship. The next morning, Cavendish himself went to the shore in a boat, and saw three Spaniards, part of the remnant of Sarmiento's colony. These men made some difficulty in trusting themselves with the English: but one of them at last embarked in the boat, and the two others were sent for their associates, whose number had been by sickness and famine reduced to fifteen, twelve men and three women:

‘When the General* arrived on board, he found the wind favourable for advancing up the *Strait*; upon which, without any waiting, he ordered the anchors to be taken up, and the ships immediately sailed forward, leaving the wretched remains of the Spanish colony with this cruel disappointment, added to their other miseries, and utterly abandoned of man, both friend and foe.

‘With respect to the conduct of Mr. Cavendish on this occasion, it is to be remarked, that the passage of the *Strait* was at that time, with great reason, regarded as extremely precarious and uncertain: the examples of failure in the attempt, even after entrance within the *Strait* had been gained, were numerous. In warfare, there are many cases wherein, by the general practice of the world, the dictates of humanity are not allowed to influence the operations of hostility. If Cavendish, by stopping to take on board the remnant of the Spanish garrison, had missed his passage and been forced to return home, it is far from certain that the disappointment of his expectations and those of his followers would have been compensated by the approbation of his countrymen, or that he would have stood acquitted in the general opinion of the world for having so sacrificed the success of his undertaking, and convert-

* i. e. Mr. Cavendish, it being customary in that age to give this title to commanders by sea as well as by land.

ed to the benefit, what had been intended for the annoyance, of the enemy. From these considerations it may be argued, that the English, in not staying to relieve the Spanish colonists, did not act in a manner repugnant to the general practice of the most civilized nations.

‘ On the other hand, it may be observed, that the time necessary for taking these people on board could scarcely have exceeded two or three hours, as it is most probable that they would have been all waiting in readiness to embark by the time that boats could have gone to them from the ships. Considering the shortness of the required detention, the extraordinary hardships they had endured, and their extreme distress, it must excite some wonder that the claims of humanity did not prevail for their preservation. The best apology that can be offered for the conduct of the English on this occasion, is, that they could not foresee, or reasonably imagine, that relief would not be sent to the Spaniards from their own country.’

The Spaniard who embarked with the English took the earliest opportunity of escaping from them on the coast of Chili. His declaration, which was afterward published in Spain, and a summary of which is given by Capt. B., is an affecting narrative of the gradual destruction of Sarmiento's colonists by cold and want. They appear to have been injudiciously selected for the purpose, having among them neither seamen nor fishermen: for, as a proof of the possibility of obtaining food, at this very time, the English under Cavendish procured a supply of provisions in the Strait by catching and salting Penguins.

Cavendish, having entered the South Sea, proceeded up the coast of Chili, committing and receiving various injuries. Near the south Cape of California, he was so fortunate as to fall in with a rich ship from the Philippine Islands, and captured her after a stout resistance. This proved a valuable prize; since they took out of her “122,000 pesos of gold,” and about forty tons of valuable merchandise. The remainder of the cargo, about 500 tons, they burnt in the ship, having previously landed the crew; who, however, after the departure of the English, found means to embark on the remains of the bottom of their vessel, and to reach New Spain.

On leaving California, Cavendish lost his remaining consort, the smallest of his vessels having been previously destroyed. In his own ship, the *Desire*, he proceeded on his voyage, touching at St. Helena, and arrived at Plymouth two years and fifty days after his departure from that place.

‘ This is generally reckoned the third circumnavigation of the globe, which is correct in respect to the ship in which Mr. Cavendish sailed; and she performed the tour in a shorter space of time than either of her predecessors.

‘ The

'The enterprise of Mr. Cavendish had great advantage over the more early ones of the English in the *Pacific Ocean*, in being legally authorised. In the conduct of it, the Commander was sometimes wanting in prudence and vigilance, but the activity and courage displayed by him are conspicuous, and his success has established the reputation of his undertaking. The acts of waste and outrage wantonly committed by him without the smallest shew of remorse, shew equally a rooted hatred against the Spaniards, and a disposition naturally cruel. On his return to England, he addressed a letter to Lord Hunsdon, the Lord Chamberlain, in which is the following boast: 'I navigated along the coast of *Chili*, *Pern*, 'and *Nueva Espanna*, where I made great spoiles: I burnt and 'sunk 19 sailes of ships, small and great. All the villages and 'towns that ever I landed at, I burnt and spoiled.'

'The voyage of Mr. Cavendish was not entirely unproductive of advantage to Geography. The only discovery, however, of any importance which can be attributed to him, is that of the harbour named by him *Port Desire*, on the east coast of *Patagonia*. The nautical Remarks and Notes by Mr. Thomas Fuller must have given useful information to the navigators of that time. They consist of a list of latitudes of many of the capes, bays, and other parts of coast seen during the voyage; some account of the soundings; with the bearings and distances of different points of land from each other.'

Merick's voyage, which immediately succeeded that of Cavendish, is remarkable from the incident of taking on board the only person who remained alive of Sarmiento's colony: but the ship's crew being weakened and discontented, they sailed back from the Strait to Europe; and this Spaniard, the sole survivor of six years' hardships, perished in the distresses of the homeward voyage, with all the crew excepting four.

Cavendish himself, in 1591, sailed on a second voyage with five vessels. He appears to have expended too much time on the coast of Brasil, in consequence of which he did not arrive at the Strait till the middle of April: he there encountered adverse winds, and a severe winter; and after having remained there during a month, he became so much dispirited that he sailed homeward, but died in the passage. This voyage would be little worthy of notice, had not the persevering determination of Capt. John Davis, who commanded one of Cavendish's ships, prompted him to part company with his leader, with the intention of resuming the original design of the voyage. Shortly after this separation, the Islands at present called Falkland's Islands were discovered by Davis: to whose memory, as a seaman and a discoverer, Capt. B. has rendered justice:

‘ In this manner was it the fortune of Captain John Davis, who had before distinguished himself by three several attempts to discover a North West Passage, and had penetrated into the arm of the sea between *Greenland* and the American coast (named after its Discoverer *Davis's Strait*) as far as to $72\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ N, to be the first Discoverer of the Islands which have since been successively distinguished by the different appellations of *Hawkins's Muiden-land*, the *Sebaldines*, *Falkland Islands*, the *Malouines*, and *Isles Nouvelles*, whilst the knowledge of the original Discovery seems to have passed immediately into oblivion*, though the fact has been preserved where it had a fair chance of obtaining notice. As the name given, at first incorrectly, to this groupe of Islands has undergone so many changes equally unjust, one more change seems necessary to set the matter right: and therefore when there is again occasion to mention them in this work, the name of *Davis's Southern Islands* will be adopted.’

Davis passed through the Strait into the South Sea, but did not succeed in making farther progress, being driven back by repeated storms; and returning homewards, he at last reached Beerhaven in a miserable condition.

It is a strong proof of the practical utility of the work before us, that Byron, in 1764, from ignorance of this voyage, made a most erroneous conjecture concerning the extent of the river of Port Desire, which Davis in 1592 had penetrated as far as it is navigable. (See P. 105.)

The chapter which next follows contains an examination of the voyage said to have been made by Juan de Fuca, a Greek pilot: the relation of whose discoveries has been a subject of much disquisition among geographers. Capt. B. thus delivers his opinion:

‘ Against the validity of the foregoing Relation, it is objected that no Spanish author of that time has spoken of De Fuca, or of his discoveries: neither has any such name or any circumstance of such a discovery been found in the *Archivo General de Indias* at *Seville*, which was searched in 1802, for that special purpose. The Relation, therefore, having rested solely on the hearsay evidence of Mr. Michael Lok, has been wholly rejected by many.

‘ On the other side, it is to be remarked that Michael Lok is not a fictitious name or character: he had been Consul at *Aleppo* for the English merchants trading to Turkey, a station of sufficient publicity for the person who filled it to have been easily ascertained at the time the account was published by *Purchas* (A. D. 1625). There is, likewise, at this time extant, an English translation, published in 1612, of the last five Decades of P. Martyr, done by Michael Lok, who it may be supposed was the same person, the name not being common, and the subject treated of being Ameri-

* ‘ The Geographical Dictionaries and Grammars have attributed the discovery to Sir Richard Hawkins.’

can Discoveries. The discoveries which have been made in our own time have produced a powerful argument in favour of the reality of De Fuca's voyage. A Strait has been found to exist on the West coast of America, near the 48th degree of North latitude, from which many large and deep channels lead in almost every direction : and it appears extremely improbable, indeed not easily conceivable, that mere fancy or conjecture should chance upon the description of a Strait so essentially corresponding with the reality as in the passage following : — finding 'a broad inlet of sea between 47 and 48 degrees of latitude, he entered thereinto, sailing therein more than twenty days, and found that land trending still sometimes NW and NE, and North, and also East and South Eastward.' That the land was rich of gold and silver might have been supposed from seeing veins of mineral in the earth. Many similar assertions are to be found in the accounts of the early discoverers (in other respects true), made with no better foundation. The width of the entrance of the Strait cannot be reconciled : but, with respect to the exaggerations, it has been properly remarked, that the account is not immediately from De Fuca, and might have gathered circumstances in the transmission. Some of our most able Geographers give credit to the reality of Juan de Fuca's Voyage, without extending their belief to all the particulars of the account ; and the Strait which has been found on the West side of America, in $48^{\circ} 25' N.$ is at present distinguished by the name of *Entrance or Strait of Juan de Fuca.*

The ill fortune of Cavendish, in his second voyage, did not encourage his countrymen to this sort of adventures ; and during the remainder of the reign of Elizabeth, Sir Richard Hawkins was the only Englishman who sailed on similar motives to the South Sea. He has left his narrative of the voyage, which was designed for the mixed purposes of discovery, plunder, and commerce. He departed with three vessels in 1593 ; and, in crossing the Bay of Biscay, he introduces some remarks concerning the customs observed in his time, between English ships of war and those of foreign powers meeting in times of peace in the narrow seas :

'In our seas,' Sir Richard says, 'if a stranger fleet meet with any of her Majesties ships, the foreigners are bound to take in their flags, or her Majesties ships to force them to it, though thereof follow the breach of peace, or whatsoever discommodity.' Sir Richard adds, 'And whosoever should not be jealous in this point, he is not worthy to have the command of a Cock-boat committed unto him.'

'In Queen Maries reign, King Philip of Spain coming to marry with the Queen, and meeting with the Royal Navy of England, the Lord William Howard, High Admiral of England, would not consent, that the King in the narrow seas should carry his flag displayed, untill he came into the harbour of Plymouth.'

Sir Richard obtained refreshment on the Coast of Brasil, where he unloaded and burnt one of his small vessels, and the other deserted him. He afterward saw the Islands discovered by Davis in the year before : but apparently being ignorant of that discovery, he named them *Hawkins's Maiden Land*, and did not visit them very closely. He had a prosperous passage through the Strait, and committed some trifling pillage along the coast of Chili : but his force was too small to attempt any object of importance. A Spanish armament being sent out from Lima to attack him, he at first escaped through accidents which befell his pursuers : but, as he loitered near the coast, they again came up with him, and succeeded in capturing him, after a long action awkwardly fought by the Spaniards, few of whom probably were seamen.

Sir R. Hawkins's narrative contains much miscellaneous information, which will be of value when the successive improvements of shipping, especially of the British Navy, and of navigation, shall find an historian. The distillation of fresh-water from salt-water was then known, and was practised by Hawkins during his voyage ; and he also describes a curious mode of discharging arrows from muskets, which was adopted with great effect.— Sir R. H. appears to have committed the egregious absurdity of going out with hostile purposes, in a ship which was outsailed on every occasion : yet her appearance must have been promising, since she received her name "*The Dainty*," from the royal lips of Elizabeth.

The next voyage commemorated by Capt. Burney is that of Alvaro de Mendana, who had in 1567 discovered the Salomon Islands, and was sent out in 1595 with four vessels, for the purpose of there settling a colony. Pedro Fernandez de Quiros, afterward celebrated for his own discoveries, sailed as Pilot with Mendana. In this second voyage, he had the good fortune to find another groupe of Islands, which he called the Marquesas, and at one of which he remained about a week. The inhabitants are described by Quiros as being a very fine race of people, but they did not escape without sustaining injury from the Spaniards, whose commander appears to have been destitute not only of authority but of nautical skill ; insomuch that when the Marquesas were first descried, he believed them to be the Salomon Islands, though he had not sailed half their distance from the coast of Peru. He was accompanied by his wife, the lady Ysabel, and three Priests ; and he appears to have been frequently influenced by them in his decisions. From the Marquesas, he continued to sail on the known parallel of the Salomon Islands, with the

confident expectation of finding them in three or four days : but they proceeded, for a whole month without seeing these Islands :

‘On September the 7th, the wind (still from the SE) blew fresh, and they sailed due West, under the foresail only. The horizon before them was obscured by thick clouds ; on which account the chief pilot (Quiros) ordered the galiot and the frigate to keep a-head in sight of the ships, and of each other, and they were particularly instructed what signals to make if they should see land or breakers. But in the evening, after it became dark, the commanders of the galiot and frigate being strongly apprehensive of danger, were afraid to preserve the station appointed them, and both their vessels dropped astern. With all this doubt, without advanced guard, and under such alarming appearances, the navigation was most improvidently and unaccountably continued ; for since Mendana first reckoned they were near the *Salomon Islands*, they had sailed many hundred leagues, it may be said in hourly expectation of falling in with them, keeping constantly in a parallel which left no chance that they should be missed, and every additional hour gave reason to strengthen expectation : but, as if by some perverse infatuation, the opposite effect seems to have been produced, and expectation to have been worn out by being so long on the stretch, and by a continuance of disappointment, which, doubtless to Mendana, was incomprehensible.

‘The ships, as before related, kept on their course. About 9 at night, the account says, the *Almiranta* was seen, meaning, as appears by the sequel, that she was not seen after that hour. At 11, on the larboard [left] hand was observed a large black cloud, which wholly darkened that part of the horizon. Those who had the watch were doubtful if it was not land, but their doubts were soon removed, for the cloud approached with a torrent of rain, and as soon as it was past, land was clearly discerned at scarcely a league distance. The *Capitana* hauled upon a wind, and made signals to the other vessels. Answers were received from two only, and nothing was seen or heard from the third.’

The Island thus discovered was named *Santa Cruz* by Mendana ; and, after some consideration, he determined to settle the colony on it ; being principally induced to this resolution by the friendship of a native chief named *Malopé* : but, such was the unruly conduct of the Spaniards, that this advantage was destroyed by a melancholy catastrophe, related by Captain B. with that feeling and propriety which, on such occasions, we never fail to find in his writings :

‘Affairs were in this state, not unfavourable to the views of Mendana, when some of the Spanish soldiers, in what manner instigated does not appear, killed the venerable chief *Malopé*, and two or three other Islanders, with whom the Spaniards were then at peace. Thus lightly and unworthily was bereaved of life, a Prince who was found by the European discoverers in the peaceable enjoyment of
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the affection and respect of his people: 'Malopé, the Indian friend of the Adelantado, from whom the Spaniards had received so much kindness.' 'Malopé,' says Quiros, 'our greatest friend and Lord of the Island!' His death was greatly lamented, and with much reason, by all the Spaniards, except the assassins, and especially by the Adelantado. As to the natives, they were inconsolable. They wept aloud for his loss, and mourned incessantly, both in public and in private, many days. Whilst Malopé lived, it may be said, that among the Islanders, the Spaniards had both friends and enemies; but after his death, one sentiment was general, and they all thirsted for vengeance. The first consequence which was severely felt by the Spaniards, was the stoppage of all supplies of provisions and refreshments. Mendana, ever ready to punish the aggressions of the Indians, found too late the evil of not restraining his own people. The guilty authors of this misfortune were punished with death, which example it was hoped would mitigate the resentment of the Islanders, but they remained irreconcilable.'

The Spaniards now became sickly; and among some of the first who died, was Mendana himself. His character is here shortly but significantly given: 'The name of Alvaro de Mendana ranks high as a discoverer: to this celebrity he is entitled, inasmuch as every man whom Fortune favours is entitled to her gifts. His merits as a Navigator, or as a Commander, have not contributed towards rendering him conspicuous, and it is remarked in Figueroa, that his death was lamented only by his relations and his favourites.' — He appointed his wife to be his successor in the command of the fleet; and under her, Don Lorenzo Berreto, her brother, to be General: but he also soon died of a wound, received in a skirmish with the natives; after which the Lady Ysabel, with the remaining Spaniards, abandoned the Colony in despair, and sailed for the Philippine Islands. Thus terminated this badly conducted voyage; from which, however, geographical knowledge derived much accession.

At the end of this narration, Capt. B. has entered into an examination of the particulars concerning the navigation which the Spanish accounts have transmitted to us, for the purpose of settling the positions of those Islands discovered in this Voyage, which have not been since recognized by Europeans; and the Track sailed by Mendana in his second Voyage is described on a Chart which fronts the title to this volume.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IV. *Some Account of Dr. Gall's new theory of Physiognomy, founded upon the Anatomy and Physiology of the Brain, and the form of the Skull. With the Critical Strictures of C. W. Hufeland, M. D. 8vo. pp. 190. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.*

MEDICAL readers are no strangers to the new theory of Dr. Gall of Vienna, the object of which is to shew that different mental operations are performed by distinct and appropriate organs of the brain; that the relative strength and acuteness of these organs vary in different individuals; and that their existence may be known from observations made on the external shape of the head. It appears that, in Germany, the doctrine has met with many followers, whereas in England it has seldom been noticed, except with the view of turning it into ridicule. Of this propensity in his countrymen, the translator of the present volume loudly complains, and, as we are disposed to admit, with a certain degree of justice; for although we can scarcely imagine that the hypothesis has any real foundation, yet, as the proposer of it is a man of respectable character, and has made a strong impression on the minds of his auditors, it is but candid to give him a fair hearing.

Chapter I. offers some observations on the structure of the brain, and the relation of its different parts to each other. We shall not, however, dwell on this portion of the work, because it consists of speculations which are too minute to be fully stated in our limits, and is not essentially connected with the peculiarities of Dr. Gall's theory. In order to prevent any misconception respecting it, we shall give the fundamental positions in the words of the author. 'Each circumvolution of nerve in the cerebrum is to be considered as the nerve or organ of some certain operation of mind: hence, each internal operation, as well as each external sense, has its own peculiar nerve and organ; and hence the brain is not *one* organ of the soul, not a common organ for all the functions of the mind, but a receptacle for distinct organs.' These positions are supported by the three following arguments: First, the sense of fatigue which the mind experiences, on being devoted for a length of time to one object, and the relief which it feels from variety; a circumstance that is regarded as analogous to similar facts in the case of the muscles and joints: Secondly, the diversity which we actually observe in the different mental powers; and Thirdly, the effect produced on the brain by partial diseases, or by wounds of its substance, the consequence of which has been the diminution of
certain

certain faculties only, without the others receiving any injury. These three are regarded as presumptive arguments; and a still farther postulate must be admitted, 'that whenever any organ is met with in a higher state of developement, there we may expect to find the power dependent on it, in corresponding energy.'

So far, we have stated the foundation on which the doctrines of *craniology* rest; we now come to the other part of the hypothesis, which has received the name of *craniology*. The fundamental position of this part we shall, as before, give our readers in the words of the writer: '*The internal lamina or plate of the brain-pan or skull is, during the life of man, perpetually formed by the brain itself; and therefore where the internal and external plates of the skull run parallel, we may infer the form of the brain from the outward shape of the skull.*' It is obvious that this position is essential to the theory of Dr. Gall; and on this account his commentator devotes a whole chapter to the proof of it. He infers its truth from the progress of the ossification of the cranium, and from the examination of different skulls; in which it seemed that the bones easily yielded to pressure from within, and were modelled in consequence of some accidental circumstances changing the figure of the brain. He farther adds that the inner table of the skull is immediately generated from the brain itself; and that, while it is in its soft state, it must necessarily take the form of the part from which it is produced.

After these preliminary points, we are next led to inquire what are the different faculties of which the brain is possessed; or rather, what are the different organs that we may suppose we shall find in examining its substance. It is remarked that we are not to expect any organ for those talents or capacities which are the result of a number of united powers, such as those which form the poet or the astronomer; nor distinct organs for those faculties which are common to all the mental powers, and which differ only in degree, as memory, judgment, imagination, &c.—We are next directed how we are to proceed in our *craniological* investigations. We must ascertain the prominencies on the heads of living persons, and compare these with their characters; we are to notice the state of the skull, as connected with different diseases, particularly with the several species of insanity; we are to observe the effects of wounds and injuries on the mental powers; and we must compare human skulls with those of various animals.

We now arrive at the enumeration of the different organs; and here, we apprehend, the weakness of the hypothesis is obviously betrayed. As it will not be in our power to examine

separately each of the organs which Dr. Gall supposes that he has detected, we shall select a specimen, from which a judgment may be formed of his manner of reasoning, and the nature of the evidence on which he builds his doctrine.—*The organ of fighting* is situated, oddly enough, near the organ of friendship, a little above the ear; it was discovered by examining the heads of boys in the streets of Vienna, and by finding a prominence in this part of the skulls of such as were quarrelsome; the same structure was perceived to take place generally among the lower classes of people; and the reverse was observed, viz. that where the prominence was deficient the party was noted for cowardice. Dr. Gall observed that this organ was entirely wanting in the skull of a German poet which he examined, but was very distinct on that of General Wurmser; and he farther remarks that a broadness on the back of the skull is an indication of the spirit of horses, dogs, and other animals. Very much in the same kind of style are described, among other organs, that of *address*, that of *cupidity*, (by which is meant an abstract passion for stealing,) and that of *vanity*. We have then a class of a more minute description, such as the organ of aptness to retain things, to retain places, to recollect persons, to learn music, &c., all which have their appropriate seats, and may be distinguished by particular emipences on the surface of the skull.—The four remaining organs are of a superior order, and belong solely to the human species; they are those of rhetorical acuteness, of metaphysical subtilty, of wit, and of theosophy. The whole number of organs described is twenty six; and we are not to suppose that these constitute all that exist, but only those that have been hitherto detected. Indeed, if we are to proceed on the same plan of minute division through the whole range of the human powers, it is obvious that the number of organs must be exceedingly multiplied; so greatly, that this circumstance alone would form a very powerful objection to the whole system.

Probably, most of our readers will agree with us in thinking that the theory is altogether much too fanciful, and rests on too slender a foundation, to require a minute criticism on all its parts. We have, however, deemed it proper to give as favourable a representation of it as the view exhibited by the author would admit; and we have endeavoured to divest it of every circumstance that might excite any feelings of ridicule; judging it fair that Dr. Gall should not be made answerable for any inconsistencies which may perhaps be chargeable to his disciple. At the same time, we consider it as necessary to inform our readers that critics, who possessed the organ of good-nature

ture in a state of less perfect developement than ourselves, might have had many opportunities of indulging their malicious propensities in the perusal of this volume, which is ill written; and abounds with weak and trifling observations.

ART. V. *An Account of the Ophthalmia which has appeared in England since the return of the British Army from Egypt.* By John Vetch, M.D. &c. Assistant Surgeon to the 54th Foot. 8vo. pp. 142. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

WE have lately had occasion, in different articles, to treat on the subject of the Egyptian Ophthalmia, and its introduction into this country. It appears to be established, on the most irrefragable evidence, that the disease is propagated by contagion; and that in this way it has been imported into England, and has spread in the same manner and with the same violence as in its native climate. These facts are extremely important, and cannot be too strongly impressed on the minds of the public at large; for by a disregard of them the means of prevention will be neglected, and the remedy, which has been found to act with almost uniform success, will not be employed, but the cure will be attempted by the same means as in the common inflammation of the eye.

Dr. Vetch had an opportunity of observing the disease as it appeared in its most violent form, while he was attending the 2d battalion of the 52d regiment. The origin of the infection was clearly traced to some recruits, who had formerly been affected with ophthalmia, and who had themselves received it directly from Egypt. The disease continued to prevail for some months, during which period the regiment was moved to different stations, and experienced several vicissitudes of external circumstances. No cause seemed to exist, to which the disease could be imputed, except contagion; and Dr. Vetch supposes, in opposition to the opinion of Mr. Edmonston *, that the contagion can be communicated only by local contact. It is not easy to determine this point so decidedly as to admit of no doubt, but we certainly think that the opinion of the present author is by much the most probable.

The symptoms of the disease are here well characterized; they are in some respects obviously distinct from those of the common ophthalmia, and it is a matter of the first importance to become accurately acquainted with this difference. The internal lining of the *palpebrae* appears to be the sole seat of the

* See our Rev. for September last, Vol. liv. p. 27.

disease at its commencement; it is affected, through its whole extent, by a purulent exudation; and a quantity of pus is afterward secreted by the eye itself, but unattended by any considerable derangement of its functions. The discharge of tears is likewise very copious, but it is remarkable that scarcely any intolerance of light is found to prevail. This state of the eye remains for some time; the patient expressing but little uneasiness; and the purulent exudation not being perceptible, unless the lower lid be depressed. Unfortunately, the symptoms are often over-looked, and the complaint is but little regarded, until it arrives at what the author calls the second stage. All the morbid symptoms now become suddenly and greatly aggravated; the eye itself assumes the appearance of chemosis, the lids are extremely swelled, the discharge of pus is augmented, and the pain grows very acute. In almost all cases, the pain observes periodical paroxysms, of 3 or 4 hours' continuance. During these local complaints, scarcely any general affection of the system occurs; the pulse is a little quickened, but it is not fuller than in its natural state, nor are any marks of inflammatory fever exhibited. When the discharge of pus ceases, a number of granulations arise from the interior of the eye lids, and present a most shocking spectacle. On their subsiding, the surface of the cornea is frequently found to be opake, sometimes covered with the granulations, and occasionally ulcerated. The most unfortunate termination, however, is a rupture of the cornea; an occurrence which frequently attends the disease when in its most violent form, and which is infallibly followed by irremediable blindness. When the cornea is merely left opake, we have a prospect of relieving the disease by external applications, and sometimes the opacity is spontaneously removed with astonishing rapidity.

These are the leading symptoms of this formidable disease, when left to pursue its natural course; and of the activity of its contagion, our readers may form an idea from the striking fact stated by Dr. Vetch, that in the battalion, which consisted of 700 men, '636 cases of ophthalmia, including relapses, were admitted into the hospital, from August 1805, when the disease commenced, till the same month in 1806.'

When the disease first made its appearance, the usual remedies for ophthalmia were employed, but without any benefit. Topical bleeding, external cold, blisters, purgatives, scarifications, &c. were found equally inefficacious. In this calamitous state of things, Mr. Knight, the inspector general of army hospitals, came to the regiment, in order to ascertain with accuracy the nature of the disease; and most fortunately, —we may add, most sagaciously,—he recommended the employment

ployment of the antiphlogistic regimen in its fullest extent, particularly the very copious use of the lancet. The result of this treatment was most satisfactory. The same degree of enlargement did indeed take place in the *palpebra* and *conjunctiva*, but the secretion of pus was inconsiderable, the granulations were no longer troublesome, the pain was comparatively slight, and the termination of the disease was uniformly favourable. The practice suggested by Mr. Knight, as the author remarks, 'has not, perhaps, from its decision and its efficacy, a parallel in the practice of medicine; and every person who has seen it employed, is sufficiently convinced of its propriety; but those who have experienced the mortification of seeing every other means unequal to combat the disease, are best able to express a just sense of its benefits.'

We need scarcely add that we have perused this volume with much interest; it gives a satisfactory account of a singular and alarming disease; and it points out the method by which its occurrence may be altogether prevented, or, if it has taken place, the means by which its violence may be subdued.

ART. VI. *Specimens of English Prose Writers*, from the Earliest Times, to the Close of the Seventeenth Century; with Sketches Biographical and Literary: including an Account of Books, as well as of their Authors; with occasional Criticisms. By George Burnett, late of Baliol College, Oxford. 3 Vols. Crown 8vo. pp. about 500 in each. 1l. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

To trace the progress of the English Language from its rude origin to its present state of refinement, and to witness the several steps by which it acquired the perfection that may now be ascribed to it, must be highly interesting to every English scholar. As he contemplates its copiousness, its precision, and its elegance, his curiosity is naturally excited to inquire by what means and in what manner it attained those excellences, and in making the investigation he finds not only gratification but improvement: not only is he pleased in beholding its several gradations, but he is also qualified, by being conversant with the various styles of others, to judge of their merits, and to form his own.

The work before us, which was suggested by and is intended as a counter-part of Mr. Ellis's "*Specimens of Early English Poets*," contains *Specimens of the best English Prose Writers*, in succession, from the reign of Edward III. to that of James II; and the student in English literature, by having recourse to it, may be enabled to view the advances of the language
for

for nearly four hundred years, from the time at which it was beginning to form itself, to the period of its approach to its present improvement.

It may be of some use to our readers, besides furnishing them with a concise view of the nature of these volumes, to transcribe the tables of their Contents, which indicate the names of the authors and the works from which the specimens are extracted.

• Vol. I. Sir John Mandeville, Trevisa—The Polychronicon, Wicliffe, Chaucer, Reynold, Pecoche (Bishop of Chichester), Sir John Fortescue, Fenn's Letters, Caxton, The Chronicles of England, The Description of England, The Fruit of Times, The Golden Legend, the Book of the Order of Chivalry or Knighthood, Morte Arthur, The Books of the Feats of Arms and of Chivalry, *Romance*, Fabian. *Revival of Letters*, Froissart, Fischer (Bishop of Rochester), Sir Thomas More, Leland, Harding, Hall, Tyndale, Coverdale, Rogers, Translations of the Bible, Latimer (Bishop of Worcester).

• Vol. II. Gardiner (Bishop of Winchester), The Complaynt of Scotland, Sir William Barlow (Bishop of Bath and Wells), Sir John Cheke, Wilson, Grafton, Roger Ascham, Fox, Holingshed, Sir Philip Sydney, Spenser, Sir Walter Raleigh, Lilly, Cecil (Lord Burleigh), Stow, Knolles, Agard, Camden, Hooker, Bacon (Lord Verulam), Speed, Daniel, Sir Henry Spelman, Andrews (Bishop of Winchester), Donne, Ben Jonson, Cotton, Purchas, Burton, Selden, King James, *Glossary*.

• Vol III. Hall (Bp. of Norwich), Herbert, Hobbes, May, Jeremy Taylor (Bishop of Downe and Connor), William Lilly, White Locke (Bulstrode, Lord), Sir Thomas Brown, Lord Brook, Fuller, Milton, Hyde (Earl of Clarendon), Howell, Harington, Cleveland, Cowley, Algernon Sydney, Quarles, Walton, L'Estrange, Marvel, Felltham, France to the Life, (an anonymous work so intitled, printed in 1657,) Boyle, Barrow, Bunyan, Temple, Tillotson (Archbishop of Canterbury), Burnet (Dr Thomas), Sherlock, Dryden, South, Barclay, Tom Brown, Lady Russel, Burnet (Bishop of Salisbury).

The publication, however, does not consist of specimens only, but furnishes also biographical and literary anecdotes of the several writers, accounts of the different eras of literature, and views of the state of the language in the several reigns; forming a concise yet a comprehensive and interesting History of English Literature. Generally speaking, we think that the extracts are well chosen; and Mr. Burnett has not only endeavoured to shew in them the characteristic style of each writer, but to afford entertainment and improvement in the perusal. They are thus made sometimes rather longer than they would otherwise have been: but their value is usually a sufficient apology for their length. As to the biographical notices, the editor says in his preface; 'my general source for the

the lives has been the *Biographia Britannica*. Other sources are referred to, where it could be of any utility. It were idle to make a display of authorities in a work which has no pretensions to originality even of complement. Indeed, I consider myself as having done little more than collected, into a convenient form and arrangement, some information (I hope entertaining and useful) before incommodiously dispersed either in scarce or cumbrous volumes.'

For obvious reasons, we shall not attempt to lay any part of these specimens before our readers: but, as the editor appears with advantage in the other departments, we shall make a few quotations that will exemplify his manner of writing, and prove the truth of our commendations.

From Mr. B.'s account of the REVIVAL OF LETTERS, we with pleasure make the following extract:

'We are now arrived on the confines of light. The revival of classical learning about the middle of this century, (the 15th), created a new æra in literature and in human affairs, auspicious to every species of improvement. From the influence of this event upon the subsequent progress of knowledge, and particularly of the English language, it may be proper, before entering on the reign of Henry VIII. to give a cursory view of the subject, as far at least as it relates to the introduction of the Grecian and Roman learning into England.

'The connection between the ancient and modern learning, was never entirely dissolved. Amidst the violence and general insecurity which prevailed in the middle ages, the Romish clergy, invested by superstition with a mysterious and sanctified authority, which kept the vulgar in awe, enjoyed that security and leisure, which are essential to intellectual pursuits. The monastic libraries contained all the literature of the times; and a few out of the numbers who were intellectually idle, were prompted either from inherent activity of character, or simply as a remedy for listlessness, to read, and afterwards to write. We are thus indebted to the monkish writers for those few rays of light which gleam through the darkness of that savage period. Though the taste and stile of the monkish historians are as barbarous as the age in which they lived; yet, from their frequent allusions to ancient history, and their quotations of ancient authors, it is evident that the more dignified and intelligent churchmen were familiar with the Roman learning. But this learning was confined to the cloister. The profane world was sunk in ignorance and barbarism.

'About the middle of the fourteenth century, Dante, Petrarca, with his pupil and friend, Boccace, in Italy; and soon after, Chaucer and Gower, in England, by the cultivation of their vernacular languages, commenced a new æra in literary taste, and contributed to enlarge the sphere of intellectual pleasures. Petrarca was organized for the highest and more refined emotions; and his genius, inspired by the most pure and exalted passion, expressed his glowing feelings in language of correspondent truth and delicacy. The strings of the human

human heart, vibrating in harmony, acknowledged the touch of nature ; and the poetry of Petrarca creating a finer intellectual *art*, produced in a few minds, a distaste for romantic imagery and the peculiarities of Gothic manners. This incipient diffusion of a juster sentiment, prepared the way for the complete establishment of classical refinement in the succeeding century.'

Mr. Burnett's detail of the several translations of the Bible is on many accounts peculiarly interesting, and our readers no doubt will pardon us for the length of the citations :

' As the several translations of the scriptures had very considerable influence on the early progress, as well as on the subsequent establishment, of our language, I shall perhaps be excused for introducing, in this place, a brief account of those versions which existed prior to Wicliffe.—It is asserted by Fox, the martyrologist, in the preface to his Saxon copy of the four Gospels, published in 1571, from a MS. in the Bodleian library, that Bede not only translated the whole Bible into Saxon, but also, not long before his death, the Gospel of St. John into the English of his time ; that Alfred translated both the Old and New Testament into his native language ; that if histories were well examined, it would be found that before the conquest and after, as likewise before Wicliffe and since, the whole body of scripture was translated, by sundry persons, into English ; and that Arundel, archbishop of York, and chancellor of England, at the funeral sermon of queen Anne, who died in 1394, affirmed that princess to have had the Gospels in the vulgar tongue, with divers expositions upon the same, which she sent to him to be examined.

' It may be proper to remark upon this abstract, that the English language, as spoken at present, did not begin to be formed till several centuries after the *Anglo-Saxon* version of Bede, who died in 734 ; and that the version of the Gospels last-mentioned, as in the possession of queen Anne, was probably that of Wicliffe, as he died ten years before that princess.

' There was, however, a metrical version of the scriptures in French, mentioned by Warton, in his history of English Poetry, made about the year 1200 ; and one in prose, by Mace, in 1343 : and another also in verse by Raoul de Presles, in the year 1380. From the intimate connection of the English and French, and from the circumstance of the French tongue being the language of the court, at this period, those versions were very possibly known to some of the higher ranks in England. But the lower orders were unable to read even in their vernacular language ; and from the general ignorance which hence prevailed, the impudence and selfish policy of the monks were busy in propagating the opinion, that it was unlawful for any but priests to read the scriptures. Yet, in spite of this terrific dogma, Richard Rolle, hermit of Hampole, in Yorkshire, who died in 1349, had the courage to translate the Psalter, and the hymns of the church, into English ; and he has the honour of being the first who rendered a portion of the contents of this venerable volume into his vernacular language. He also wrote a gloss in English,

English, upon the Psalter; of which there is a somewhat different translation in the Harleian library, also with a gloss; and in the King's library another, from psalm 89, to 118. At the end of the MS. of Hampole's Psalter, in Sidney College, Cambridge, follow the Canticles translated and commented on, as the book of Psalms.

‘ It seems likewise, that some parts, if not the whole of the New Testament, were also translated by different persons, and glossed and explained in the same manner. In the MS. library of Bennet College, Cambridge, is a gloss, in the English, spoken after the conquest, on the following books of the New Testament; viz. the Gospels of St. Mark and St. Luke, the Epistles to the Romans, Corinthians, Galatians, Ephesians, Philippians, Colossians, Thessalonians, Timothy, Titus, Philemon, and Hebrews; among which is inserted, between the Epistles to the Colossians and Thessalonians, the Apocryphal Epistle to the Laodiceans. The comment which accompanies this version, resembles that of Hampole; being for the most part mystical and allegorical.

‘ Whether Trevisa's version, before mentioned, consisted of the whole Bible, or merely of some particular portions of it, is doubtful; though the latter supposition is the most probable.

‘ These translations, then, of parts of the Old and New Testament, not of the whole Bible, were all made before Wicliffe began to flourish. It is probable, too, that they were not published; but designed merely for the translator's own use.’—

‘ Wicliffe's translation, in which he was assisted by several of his followers, probably occupied the last ten years of his life. As he was not sufficiently acquainted with the Hebrew and Greek to translate from them, his version was made from the vulgate, of which he collated numerous copies. His method of translating was literal, or word for word, as had been done before, in the Anglo-Saxonic translation, without much attention to the difference of idiom in the two languages. Hence, this version, in some places, is not very intelligible to those who are unacquainted with the Latin. Wicliffe seems to have done this by design; since, in a prologue to his Psalter, he says, “ They who know not the Latin, by the English, may come to many Latin words.” It should be observed too, that the vulgate text from which Wicliffe translated, though collated from numerous copies, differed, in many places, from the established vulgate of modern times. Of this translation, several MS. copies still exist in the libraries of our Universities, in the British Museum, and in other public and private collections. In St. John's College in Oxford is a MS. of the Old Testament, said to be of Wicliffe's own writing, which ends with the Second Book of Maccabees.’—

‘ The most outrageous abuse was bestowed upon Wicliffe by the Catholic party, for thus enabling the multitude to draw at the fountain of their faith. Henry Knighton, canon of Leicester, his contemporary, thus speaks of his labours. “ This Master John Wicliffe, translated out of Latin into English, the Gospel, which Christ had entrusted with the clergy and doctors of the church, that *they* might minister it to the laity and weaker sort, according to the exigency

of times, and their several occasions. So that by this means, the Gospel is made vulgar, and laid more open to the laity, and even to women, who could read, than it used to be to the most learned of the clergy, and those of the best understanding. And so the Gospel jewel, or Evangelical pearl, is thrown about and trodden under feet of swine."

• This is a mild specimen of Catholic rage. The general alarm, however, among the clergy was so great, that in the 13th of Richard II. a bill was brought into the House of Lords for suppressing it; but was opposed in so firm a tone by the renowned duke of Lancaster, that it was thrown out.

• Some of the followers of Wicliffe, encouraged by his success, undertook to review his translation, or rather to make another, which was less literal, but more conformable to the sense. Of this version also, various MS. copies exist in our public libraries.

• "In the age of Wicliffe, the orthodox divines commonly wrote in Latin. But the sentiments he was so zealous to promulgate, could not have been sufficiently diffused, if he had confined himself to a learned language; and to give his arguments their utmost influence by rendering them intelligible to the bulk of the people, he was compelled to write, as well as to speak, in the vernacular tongue. His quarrel with the pope, therefore, in addition to the more important consequences it involved, may be considered as highly auspicious to English literature: for his influence with his cotemporaries, arising from his talents and pre-eminent learning, aided by the contagious nature of the sentiments he was ambitious to disseminate, greatly contributed to give diffusion to that *fashion* in the use of the English, which had already begun to prevail, and which was subsequently established by the exertions of Chaucer and Gower."—

• About twenty-four years after the death of Wicliffe, archbishop Arundel, in a convocation of the clergy of his province assembled at Oxford, published a constitution, by which it was decreed, "that no one should thereafter translate any text of Holy Scripture into English, by way of a book, a little book, or tract; and that no book, &c. of this kind should be read that was composed lately in the time of John Wicliffe, or since his death."

• The Latin Bible, or Vulgate, was first printed in 1462, and by several succeeding editions, soon became common. The Old Testament in Hebrew, was first printed in 1488; and the New Testament at Basil, in its original Greek, about thirty years after. When these sacred oracles were brought into England, with the introduction of printing, the illiterate and terrified monks declaimed from their pulpits, that there was now a new language discovered, called *Greek*, of which people should beware, since it was that which produced all the heresies; that in this language was come forth a book called the *New Testament*, which was now in every body's hands, and was full of thorns and briars; that there was also another language now started up, which they called *Hebrew*, and that they who learned it were turned Hebrews.

• About this time, the vicar of Croydon, in Surry, in a sermon preached at Paul's Cross, is said to have declared, with prophetic

prophetic wisdom, "We must root out printing, or printing will root out us."

Notwithstanding, however, the clamours of the monks, and persecutions of the secular clergy, William Tyndale, in the reign of Henry VIII. undertook to translate the Scriptures from the original Hebrew and Greek, into English; though he was convinced, from the circumstances of the times, that the undertaking would be accomplished at the hazard of his life. That he might prosecute his design in greater security, he made an attempt, through the interest of Sir Henry Guildford, master of horse to the king, and a warm patron of learned men, to be admitted into the family of Tonsal, lately promoted to the see of London. But his application proving unsuccessful, and still contemplating his favourite object with ardent enthusiasm, he resolved to go abroad. To accomplish which purpose, he was allowed an annuity of ten pounds a year by Humphry Monmouth, a wealthy citizen, and a favourer of the reformation; and at Antwerp, in Flanders, he prosecuted his design with great assiduity. John Fry and William Roye, who acted as amanuenses for him, also assisted him in collating texts; and the New Testament was finished in 1526, of which one thousand five hundred copies were printed, but without a name. This edition, by Tyndale's own acknowledgment, had considerable errors; but it sold so rapidly, that the following year another edition was published by the Dutch printers, and the year after, another, each consisting of five thousand copies. Great numbers of these were imported into England, and the whole speedily sold. The importers, however, were prosecuted with great, though often ludicrous, severity. To give an instance—John Tyndale, the translator's brother, and Thomas Patmore, merchants, were condemned to do penance, by riding with their faces to their horses' tails, with the books fastened thick about them, pinned or tacked to their gowns or cloaks, to the standard in *Cheap*, and there, with their own hands, to fling them into the fire kindled on purpose to burn them.

But the zeal of the reformers surmounted every obstacle, and the New Testament of this translation, continued to be imported and read; a fact which is proved from the sale of the three editions before mentioned, before the year 1530, when a third Dutch edition was printed.

Meanwhile Tyndale was diligently occupied in translating from the Hebrew the five books of Moses; and having finished his translation, he was shipwrecked on his voyage to Hamburgh, (undertaken in order to print it,) the manuscript lost, and he was obliged to begin all anew. From this accident, the Old Testament did not appear in an English dress till the year 1530. In this year too, being now at leisure, Tyndale published his "Answer unto Sir Thomas More's Dialogue."

After having given a particular and interesting account of the various translators, Mr. B. thus concludes the article:

"I have been thus copious in my account of the several versions of the Scriptures, not simply to exhibit a picture of the theological opinions

opinions and prejudices of this period, but because those versions did more, perhaps, to fix the language, than all other books put together. A similar effect was produced in Germany by the German translations. They have transmitted and perpetuated many ancient words, which probably would otherwise have become obsolete or unintelligible. It is justly remarked by Warton, that they contributed to enrich our native English, by importing and familiarising many Latin words, particularly the Latin derivative substantives, such as—divination, perdition, adoption, manifestation, consolation, contribution, administration, consummation, reconciliation, operation, communication, retribution, preparation, immortality, principality, &c. &c. And in other words, frustrate, inexcusable, transfigure, concupiscence, &c. &c. These words were obviously suggested by the Latin Vulgate; and at the time must have been incomprehensible by the bulk of the people, and even by many of the first classes. Hence it appears that Gardiner had little cause for his complaint, that the translation was too clear; and for his proposal, that instead of always using English phrases, many Latin terms should still be retained, from the hypocritical plea of their inherent significance and dignity.

But there were effects which resulted from the translation of the Bible still more important than the fixing the language, but to which *this* was necessarily precursive. Before the Scriptures were in the vulgar tongue, the ignorance of the lower classes was scarcely one remove above complete barbarism. They had now an opportunity of exercising their own judgments on the articles of their religious creed; and their frequent disputations on the meaning of different texts, their comments, and even their quarrels about divine things—all operated as powerful stimulants to awaken their faculties from the deep slumber which had oppressed and degraded them. The humanizing influence, too, of Christianity, purified and exalted their affections, while its doctrines instructed them in their duties, and its sanctions urged to the practice of them. It were futile to object that the lower classes of religionists, and even those of more cultivated minds, blended the absurdest superstition, both with their theoretical and practical theology. This must necessarily be the case, till the instruments of thought are sufficiently sharpened and polished by use, to enable them to separate the true from the false. With the hope of eternal and inconceivable rewards on one hand, and the prospect of unimagined and ever-during torment on the other—tenets rendered operative by being brought home to the feelings by faith—their effect was great in proportion as their motives were powerful. Hence, among the early reformers, conscience was almost omnipotent: for, though to avoid being burnt alive, many of them recanted, yet the horrors of remorse, more terrible than devouring fire, caused many also to relapse into their former *heresies*, and joyfully to embrace the flames in which they were consumed. The improvement of the public morals was the necessary consequence of this obedience to duty.

In the specimens, the editor has judiciously adopted the modern orthography; since, had the ancient spelling been preserved

preserved, the general reader would have been disgusted with the appearance of the language, and prevented from reaping advantage from the work. The obsolete terms, however, have been retained, but they are printed in Italics, with an explanation placed at the bottom of the page; and a Glossary is added at the end of the second Volume, to explain those words which are not thus noticed.—With respect to the obsolete Orthography; ‘it has occurred to Mr. B. to print a few sentences or a short passage in each author in the antient manner, should the work be sanctioned by the public approbation:’ we approve this idea, and think that the publication will be more perfect if it be adopted in a succeeding edition. Mr. Burnett also remarks that it might have given an air of greater completeness to his performance, had it been preceded by an essay on the early formation of our language from the Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French: but, having been anticipated by Messrs. Ellis, Johnson, and Tyrwhit, he thought that it would be an useless repetition. No doubt, were such an Essay prefixed, this compilation would be more complete; and though the subject has been treated by others, we should have been pleased to see the plan adopted in these volumes. Slight specimens of the language in the various reigns, with translations into modern English, would also be gratifying to many who might not meet with the authors adduced.—Moreover, as this production is intended for the use of students in English literature, we should have been glad to have met with an analytical account of the styles of the different authors, specifying their progressive improvement in precision and good taste.

We do not see any particular reason which should have prevented the *Specimens* from reaching farther down than the end of the seventeenth century; and we think that an additional and very interesting volume might be composed of extracts from the writers of the succeeding age. Although the works of our most elegant and pure authors are well known, yet a series of specimens, with critical remarks on their several styles, would be acceptable and instructive: since the young student might hence be made acquainted with the peculiar excellencies of Addison, Swift, Hume, Johnson, Reynolds, Burke, &c. and be taught to form a just estimate of the value of their writings. This supplementary volume, however, may be published whenever the author may chuse to undertake it, without waiting for the call of a new edition of the others.

We have the more readily offered these suggestions, because the editor expresses his willingness to adopt any hint that may add to the utility or entertainment of his book. As it

is now presented to us, however, we regard it as worthy of no small commendation ; and to all who are interested in the progress of their mother-tongue, we cheerfully recommend a perusal of these volumes. We had occasion to commend Mr. Burnett, in our last number, for his *View of Poland*, and we are happy in again meeting with him,—*though it be at home.*

ART. VII. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Gloucester*; drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By Thomas Rudge, B. D. 8vo. pp. 408. 9s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1807.

As we have already noticed many of the county surveys which have been undertaken by experienced men at the desire of the Board of Agriculture, it will be sufficient for us on the present occasion to state, *in limine*, that the work before us is prosecuted on the same plan as the other Reports, and will not be found inferior to any in point of execution. Mr. Rudge appears to have been industrious in collecting materials, to have examined with a discriminating eye, and with his experience to have combined those reflections which belong to minds of a superior order. If correctness has not always been attained, it has evidently been his constant object ; and if we cannot subscribe to all his observations, we in general agree with him on the most important points which become matters of discussion when the internal state of the Empire is under consideration. Without farther preface, then, we shall enter on the details which this volume affords respecting the County of Gloucester.

This division of the kingdom of Great Britain extends northward from $51^{\circ} 28'$ to $52^{\circ} 12'$, and from $1^{\circ} 38'$ east to $2^{\circ} 42'$ west of London ; on the north and north-east it is bounded by Worcestershire and Warwickshire, on the east by Oxfordshire, on the south and south-east by part of Berkshire and Wiltshire, on the south and south-west by Somersetshire and the Bristol Channel, and on the west and north-west by the counties of Monmouth and Hereford. According to the tables given in this work, the county of Gloucester contains 695,252 acres; about 300,000 of which are under tillage, 463,183 are still subject to tithes, and 232,069 have been exonerated by acts of Parliament, &c. ; and the population of the county and city amounts to 210,267, having increased since the beginning of the last century, 84,145. The rental of the county was calculated from the parochial returns in 1803 at 846,234l. ; and supposing the parishes to be rated at three-fourths of the rack-rent, the whole sum will be

be 1,128,312l. In 1776, the freeholders who actually voted were 5790. Persons relieved in and out of workhouses are stated at 33,113, at the expence of 3l. 1s. 7½d. per head, or 102,013l. 12s. 8d. total; which, on the above stated rental, amounts to 1s. 9½d. per pound *per annum*.

After a full enumeration of the political divisions and subdivisions of the county, Mr. Rudge proceeds to consider that natural division of it which will best answer the purpose of an agricultural survey; and in this view he parcels it into three districts, the *Cotswold, Vale, and Forest*, describing the soil, surface, and climate of each. Under the head of Minerals, we have a statement of the coal which the Forest produces:

‘The pits in the Forest of Dean are numerous, not fewer perhaps than one hundred and fifty. Many of these are worked at a shallow depth, for want of mechanical powers to exhaust the water. The steam-engine, on account of the great expence of erecting it, is beyond the reach of those who generally own and work the pits: for all free-miners and colliers claim a right to dig for coal and ore; and as they are a species of adventurers without capital, few of the modern improvements can be expected to take place. There are, however, at this time, three engines; and, from the pits connected with them, coal of good quality has already been raised; though in all, much sulphur is contained, which in burning emits unpleasant, if not unwholesome, vapours, and from its known property of dissolving iron, makes a rapid waste in the bars of the grates, wherein the coal is burnt.’

On account of the bad quality of this coal, little of it is consumed by the inhabitants of Gloucester; and the city is supplied from Shropshire and Staffordshire, which yield coal that is superior to any that is found in the county under survey. Lime stone, blue clay stone, freestone, and gypsum, are enumerated among its minerals.

A circumstance is mentioned in the chapter on the *State of Property*, respecting Tenures, which proves that holdings under ecclesiastical and civil corporations are more advantageous than under individual proprietors; for it is there stated that ‘under the Dean and Chapter, estates are held by leases of twenty-one years, renewable every seven, on a fine of one year and a half improved value. The tenure under the Corporation of Gloucester is nearly the same. Under proprietors, not corporate, the renewal of a single life is usually made at two years annual value.’ This fact is not confined to the county of Gloucester, and it ought not to pass without notice.

Mr. Rudge has given a list, occupying nearly five pages, of *Mansions* belonging to the principal proprietors; stating the name of each mansion, with the parish in which it is situated, and distinguishing such as are inhabited by the owners, which

is the case with a very few exceptions. To this list a judicious remark is subjoined :

‘ The residence of gentlemen at their mansions is a matter of no inconsiderable importance to the welfare of the public, and, when they occupy a part of their estates with a view to its improved cultivation, highly favourable to the agricultural interests of the county. Rack renters, however well disposed to try experiments, are usually deterred by the possibility of a failure, and, having a certain payment to make to the owner of the land, are unwilling to trust it to the uncertain issue of an untried system. No apprehension of this sort alarms a great proprietor ; the subsistence of himself or family depends not on the result of an experiment, nor, if he fails in the first, is he obliged to relinquish the further pursuits of improvement, from fear of the consequence of failure. It is justly observed by Mr. Malthus, in his *Treatise on Population*, that the reason why the agriculture of Norway has advanced so slowly is, that there are no gentlemen farmers, who may set examples of improved cultivation, and break the routine of ignorance and prejudice in the conduct of farms, that had been handed down from father to son, for successive ages.’

This reporter is not less sensible in his observations on *Cottages*, which are of more importance to the agricultural interest than some short-sighted persons are ready to allow. We transcribe with satisfaction most of the section which is appropriated to this subject :

‘ Cottages are equally necessary with mansions and farm-houses, though it appears by the face of the country, that this evident truth is not always recollected. In general, through the kingdom, it is to be feared, that the popular complaint against the dilapidation of cottages is but too well founded. In the Vale, as well as other parts of this county, there are numerous instances of this mistaken policy ; and under all the circumstances of the increased cost of materials, and builder's wages, it is scarcely to be supposed, that the evil, so far gone, will find a speedy remedy. Landlords generally deem building cottages an unprofitable way of expending money ; yet a land owner should recollect, that he cannot expect tenants for his lands, if proper places are not provided for the residence of the labourers. A tenant, indeed, taking a farm, either not foreseeing the speedy operation of the evil, or looking up to the landlord for redress, when it shall happen, seldom, if ever, troubles himself about the number of cottages annexed to it. Overseers are not often aware of the power the law gives them of erecting cottages on the waste ; and hence it follows, that more families are crowded together than is either consistent with comfort, health, or decency ; or a remedy is applied, worse possibly than the disease, which is to build a workhouse, into which every person wanting relief is crammed, without distinction of age, sex, or cause of distress.

‘ A cottage, which merely protects the inhabitant from the inclemency of the weather is an incomplete provision : sound policy requires

requires some concomitant advantages to attach him to his dwelling. I do not think that a cow is one of the necessary appendages to a cottage, or generally productive of good. In particular cases, the experiment has succeeded well, as reported by Lord Winchelsea, on his estates: and it will, perhaps, succeed in others, where the influence of a great-land proprietor extends over the whole parish, or district; but property, in few instances, is thus consolidated. Besides, the management of a cow is attended with considerable trouble, requires more utensils than the earning of a day labourer can well supply, and more conveniences of building than are usually attached to a cottage. Capital is the sinew of husbandry, and, unless it be proportioned to the undertaking, the efforts will be weak, and the success uncertain.

There is also reason to doubt, whether the labourer or his wife will be able to spare the time from their respective employments, and, should it so happen, the evil will overbalance the good. It is pleasing to see a good garden, and a pig attached to the cottage: but neither of these interfere with the daily services of the labourer, or withdraw him from the necessary attention to the business of the farmer.

The greatest of evils to agriculture would be to place the labourer in a state of independence, and thus destroy the indispensable gradations of society. The great body of mankind, being obliged to live with, and by, each other, must necessarily consist of proprietors and workmen; and if it be allowed that the dependence of a regular supply of crops rests, among other things, on the regular services of the latter, it is surely an experiment not altogether without danger, to place them in such a situation as will cause them to remit a portion of their labour, at a time, perhaps, when it is most wanted.

Would you then, it may be asked by the philanthropists, confine the labourer to his situation, and prevent his rise in the scale of society? No; but I would wish it to be left to his own industry and exertion: he should be supplied with the means of doing something more than earn his daily wages; he should have more land than is usually held with cottages: the great object is to enable him to subsist without parochial relief, and this is essentially to increase his comforts. What more is done, should be the result of a conduct peculiarly frugal and industrious. I would always wish to infer from neatness in the cottage, the pig in the sty, and store of vegetables in the garden, that the occupier has neither been inattentive to his own, or the general interests of agriculture: and such a man will feel an attachment to his possessions, from the consciousness of having brought them to their present state of improvement by his own care. His desire to protect and improve his property, will also be increased by the recollection of the labour he has bestowed upon it; and when surrounded by his family, he can with truth admonish them to be attentive to their duties, in order to better their condition, not only by pointing out the evils of idleness and vice, but by shewing in his own instance the good effects of industry and prudence, cleanliness and virtue.

‘Influenced by these considerations, I wish that every industrious labourer possessed a legal right, under certain restrictions, to build a cottage for himself, with his own savings and the voluntary assistance of his neighbours, and to inclose a garden of a limited extent, from the waste: or that in any way he might have a permanent security in the premises he occupies, till by idleness and vice he should become unworthy of encouragement.’

We need not offer any comments on this statement: its good sense will speak for itself.

Much sound reasoning occurs on the size of *Farms*, and on the beneficial operation of the increased price of *Grain* in seasons of scarcity: but we shall make no extract from this part of the work, these subjects having undergone a very ample discussion. Relative to *Inclosing*, it is stated that ‘the first act of inclosure in this county was of Farmington (12 Anne), in 1714, and the only one during that reign. In the following reign, three parishes were inclosed; in the reign of George II. eleven; and, in the present reign, more than seventy Acts have passed the Parliament for inclosing, or laying into severalty.’ To enforce the necessity of obviating the difficulties which attend the present system of inclosing, and to prove how much it is to be desired that one general, uniform, and economical plan should obtain the sanction of parliament, Mr. R. instances the inclosure in the parish of Turley. ‘Posterity, (says he) will scarcely believe, that the expences of inclosing 1000 acres, without taking in the subsequent costs of fences and buildings, amounted to 4,500*l.* in the year 1795; which was the fact in the parish of Turley. Great as may be the future advantages of an inclosure, this operates as an obstacle to the general adoption of the plan.’ It is the opinion of this reporter that the expence and difficulties attendant on acts of inclosure would be considerably lightened, by intrusting the management to one commissioner instead of three.

When Mr. Rudge asserts that ‘it is evident that *Smut* will sometimes produce smut,’ he should have remembered that *post hoc ergo propter hoc* is vicious reasoning; and he owns that his experiments made with smutted grain tend to prove the reverse. Yet he evinces a partiality for the custom of steeping the seed wheat in a lixivium previously to sowing; and, strange to say, he thinks that this lixivium affords protection to the plant against insects, till the ear is ripened: as if it were possible that the saturation with saline particles of the pulpy part of the seed, which decays soon after the germ vegetates, could extend its influence even to the new plant in the ear. Let Mr. R. reconsider this point.

An enumeration of *Corn weeds* is attempted at the end of Chapter 7: but it is not complete, as will be evident by comparing this part of Mr. Rudge's work with Mr. Pitt's Essay on Weeds in the Communications to the Board of Agriculture, vol. V. Part II., now on our table. We find, however, a circumstance mentioned by him which accounts for the celebrity of Tewkesbury mustard, according to Falstaff's simile in 2 Henry IV., "*As thick as Tewkesbury mustard.*"

' An agricultural writer has observed, that what is vulgarly called charlock in the Vale of Gloucester, is really the common mustard (*sinapis nigra*,) cultivated in the north for its flour. It is often here collected by the country people for the same purpose; and before the simple mode of living among the ancient farmers fell into disuse, few farm-houses were without a cannon ball and bowl, in which the mustard seed was bruised, and the flour saved for the table, with the black husks unseparated from it. The lands in the neighbourhood of Tewkesbury were probably much employed in raising mustard-seed in ancient times, as well as other parts of the Vale; and hence the proverbial expression.'

In the district under review, *Orchards* occupy a conspicuous place, and of their growth and management Mr. Rudge treats at large. Here a new mode of grafting, invented by Dr. Cheston of Gloucester, is mentioned, and represented to promise great advantages. The process is thus described:

' When the stocks are arrived to a proper age for planting out, the ground is opened about them, and they are separated from the largest roots; of which such are chosen as are of a sufficient size for cleft grafting, which mode is to be preferred; and if the roots are inclining, they are raised to a perpendicular, without disturbing their extremities in the ground; the scion is then inserted, and secured in the usual way. The earth is thrown around them, and one bud, or two at most, to guard against failure, are left above ground, which will be found to strike with astonishing vigour. If both succeed, the least promising is removed. The buds which are covered with earth shoot out into roots, so that when the trees are to be removed to their destined situation, they may be entirely separated from the original root on which they were engrafted. To the parent stock, sufficient roots remain for its future support, and it may be planted elsewhere, either for the purpose of producing a fresh supply of roots for the same process, or for grafting in the orchard. Some grafts, which were thus inserted in 1800; were handsome trees, eight feet high, in 1804, and had fine fruit on them.'

Every species of information, which respects the supply of our great bulwark the Navy, is now universally interesting; we shall not, therefore, be required to make any apology for introducing the estimate of the *Navy-timber* in the Forest of Dean:

'In 1714, there were computed to be 27,302 loads fit for the navy, and 168,051 trees, of about sixty years growth. In 1783, on a new survey it was computed, that there were 90,382 oak trees, containing 95,043 loads; and in 1788, the timber growing in the Forest, and immediately belonging to the Crown, was as follows: 24,000 oak trees, measuring about 30,000 loads; and 22,000, about 11,000; besides unsound trees, which were numerous and a considerable quantity of fine large beech, and young growing trees, sufficient to furnish an annual supply of 1500 loads for seventy years from that time, which, by proper management, and well protected inclosures, might be made perpetual.'

Great attention is now bestowed by gentlemen-farmers on the *Breed of Sheep*, and certain benefits have resulted from their scientific and liberal exertions: but Mr. Rudge suspects that the *rage* for the fine woelled breeds is likely to be carried too far; and he proposes two very important questions on the policy of the new system:

'First, will the encouragement given to the growth of fine wool lessen the quantity of animal food, since an increasing population imperiously calls for a contrary effect? The quantity of meat does not seem to depend on the size of one carcase so much, that an equivalent may not be provided by many, with the same quantity of nutriment. A prime consideration is, whether the animal has an aptitude to fatten, and that too on the best points. The form of the Ryelander is in all respects adapted to the carrying of flesh and fat. The neck is fine, the legs short, the haunches full, and the bone remarkably small; so that it is doubtful whether the breed is capable of much improvement, except in wool: but if several Ryelanders may be fattened to the same collective weight, as a smaller number of a larger breed, without a greater consumption of food, and without diminution in the quality of wool, the advantage is in their favour; and if the cross with the Spanish does not lower the flavour of the mutton, or lessen the aptitude to fatten, these experiments which are now making will probably produce great national good. Secondly, Is the present quantity of coarse wool, grown in the united kingdom, large enough to allow a considerable portion to be drawn from the regular demands of the manufacturers? It is asserted, that the consumption of coarse wool is equal to the full growth within the year, and that every pound taken from it, takes away so much employment from the labouring manufacturer, and eventually raises the price of coarse cloths. If this be fairly made out, the new system will be attended with considerable risque; but I do not know that the fact has been fully substantiated by evidence.'

As *Horses* consume a very large proportion of the agricultural produce of this island, a diminution of their number is an object of importance; and wherever Oxen can be substituted for them in husbandry, the former ought to be superseded.

It is said that 3,250,000 quarters of oats, the produce of 1,300,000 acres, are annually consumed by horses in this kingdom: but, even supposing that on farms Oxen were universally to take the place of horses, which cannot possibly be the case, the consumption of oats would not be so much diminished as some persons have imagined, since the number of pleasure horses is very great. We wish, however, to urge agriculturists to weigh the advantages which result from the employment of oxen in husbandry.

‘For some purposes,’ says Mr. Rudge, ‘they are not calculated; but on all farms, except those of a very limited extent, there is sufficient employ for one team of each; and certainly, when it is considered that oxen are maintained at less expence, with a saving of two parts in three; that they are less liable to disorders, and require less attendance; are easily brought into the habit of working, are capable of doing nearly as much work as horses, and are every year rather improving than otherwise; it is a matter of surprise, that they are not more used in the cultivation of large farms. On small farms, they cannot conveniently become general, because one team of horses is indispensable; and therefore the farmer must be contented with that, unless his occupation be equal to the keeping of both.’

It is the opinion of this writer that *Canals* have not operated to the advantage of Agriculture; and that the loss of land in their construction, with the inconvenience arising from their intersection of farms, has not been properly appreciated.

Among the obstacles to improvement, this reporter enumerates the existence of Tithes in their present state, the postponement of a general Inclosure-act; the want of underground Drains, and the scarcity of Timber; and he urges the importance of granting leases of a convenient length, and attending to the state of the roads. In conclusion, the planting of the Orchis as a matter of profit is recommended; and if the calculation here given can be accurate, the advantages which would result from its culture must be considerable: but we shall not hazard an opinion on this speculation.

An appendix furnishes many useful particulars on the price of building-materials, various kinds of labour, &c. It also contains a letter from Edward Sheppard, Esq. to Sir John Sinclair, Bart. on the subject of his Experiments regarding the Improvement of the fine-woolled breeds of Sheep in this kingdom; in which the author combats the statements of those writers who have contended for the universal introduction of the Merino breed, or of crosses from it. Mr. S. seems

to make a proper distinction between different situations: In poor mountainous districts, he advises that the breed should be improved by a mixture with the Spanish: but that the rich and highly cultivated parts of the kingdom should be left in possession of the large long-woolled flocks. Good judgment is evident in this recommendation.

We have formerly hinted that the County-Maps given with these Reports are on much too small a scale.

ART. VIII. *An accurate Copy of the Petition, finally agreed to at a General Meeting of the Catholics of Ireland, February 24, 1807; and intended to be presented to Parliament. With a Preface, containing Strictures on the Minister's Speech at the Close of the late Parliament.—The Military Bill—and the Management of Ireland during Lord Grenville's Administration. By a Petitioner. 8vo. pp. 40. Dublin. 1807.*

WE think that the modest and unpretending preface, by which this Petition is here ushered in, deserves no small portion of attention from all who feel an interest in the safety of their country. The facts and observations which it contains place in a strong light the present situation of Ireland, and the danger to which it exposes that island and the empire itself.

The political machinations of the last spring and summer, and the scenes to which they led, excited the indignation of every liberal and enlightened bosom, as debasing the public mind, as degrading the nation in the eyes of Europe, as rousing bigotry from its long slumber, and as inflaming religious dissensions: but it is not in this view alone that these miserable and unworthy artifices are to be reprobated, and their authors and abettors to be condemned. We ought to be aware that popular enthusiasm, and national energies, have been directed to and wasted on a phantom; and that they have produced a discontent in one part of the empire, and a spirit of intolerance in the other, from the operations of which conjointly the most serious consequences are to be apprehended, if wiser and more genial councils do not speedily apply some remedy to the evil.—Of the dangers from the present state of Ireland, the pages before us will apprize the reader.

It is also an undoubted and distressing fact that, owing to the publications of the members for Northampton and Shrewsbury, and the speeches of Alderman Birch and others, the indisposition of the people in general towards farther concessions to the catholics is greatly increased; and that the spirit
excited

excited by these inflammatory performances has so worked on numbers of well disposed but headstrong persons, as to make them prefer exposing the country to the most alarming external dangers, rather than see their fellow subjects clothed with the same civil rights which they themselves enjoy.

In reference to the Catholic bill, this writer remarks :

‘ I am astonished to observe, that, in their anxiety to reprehend the late administration, some persons in England have treated this matter as a mere deception ; or calculated, at best, to pay a compliment to a few persons of rank, and procure votes in Parliament. It was merely the commencement of a new system ; a disposal of circumstances in such a manner as tended to improvement, but of which the salutary result was to ensue at a period somewhat distant. There was no Catholic in the service, sufficiently forward, to profit for many years of the proposed regulation ; not a single vote in parliament is at the disposal of the aristocracy, or of any other description of that people ;—their feelings, if the state of influences were different, would have been more consulted both by the late and present Ministers. Never was any measure less liable to the imputation of interested motives ; it was planned in provident patriotism, good sense, and in the very soundest policy — A boon to the Catholics ! they would have, perhaps, been rendered a medium of great imperial benefit ; just as the reform of jurisprudence in Scotland would have been a national good, through the immediate instrumentality of Presbyterians. The essential merits of the scheme were, that the promise and prospect of unrestricted promotion would have opened the career of ambition ; and, by the encouragement of honourable inducements, have called forth the energies of character, and the exertion of those who are now engaged, or who shall engage in the British service ;—that the present repugnance to a military life would have been overcome, and the example of their immediate superiors brought to bear upon the class, which supplies private soldiers.—These were great and comprehensive benefits to the state, in comparison of which, any particular advantage was insignificant ; yet advantages this act contained, although they did not immediately meet the senses ; it gave a pledge too solemn to be henceforward slighted ; it sanctioned the public faith, by a penalty on its violators.—The gain to the Catholics would simply have been a principle ; that to the state, the direction to its armies of a great population, possessing immense military capabilities. The politicians of *no Popery* have triumphed for the instant ; they have spoiled an argument, but they have overturned one of the most powerful and most sure resources of the empire.’

The mass of military strength which is lost to the empire may be seen from what follows :

‘ During the American war, when the navy of France was in the towering height of its prosperity, never did the defence, or internal Police of Ireland draw more than ten thousand troops from the strength of the empire ; you would at present feel uneasy, if only fifty thousand men were assigned for the same duties.—What constitutes

tutes this immense and alarming difference? Is it the temper in which Government is carried on? Is it the management, is it the ability or dispositions of our political conductors? There are confessedly in Ireland a redundancy of hands, beyond the number which the monied capital of our island can take into employment; they are literally eating each other up; and you place an overgrown army, a part of them also foreigners, as centinels, to assist and superintend the operation; when by merely consulting the humour and conceding to the wishes of the nation; by employing the authority and influence of Government, to suppress a feud, silly in the extreme, which indeed, were it not for its consequences, could only furnish matter for ridicule; forty thousand of these troops, and sixty thousand of these people, the guardians and the guarded, might be spared to promote, in aggressive warfare, the welfare and honour of the empire. This people do not engage, because you do not draw them by their national feelings; and a clamour is set up against the persons who, observing this defect, attempted to assist the service of the state, by silencing the objections of the parent and the pastor! Under the Ministry of Mr. Addington, when fifty pounds were the bounty for a man in England, you might have procured him in Ireland for fifty shillings; so much is the condition of a soldier, in pay and accommodation, preferable to that of an Irish labourer; and the numbers so to be withdrawn, would rather have relieved than inconvenienced the general circumstances of the country.'

This author then states that

'In the Austrian territory there is a considerable Jewish population, which of course contributes its share to the armies of that monarchy. Enlightened liberal and Protestant England will probably hear with wonder, that the narrow and ignorant Papists, who sway in Austria, respect the religious feelings of the Jewish soldiers, and protect them in every rite and observance; so much attention is paid, that throughout the garrisons of the empire a military order regularly issues every year, to exempt the Jews, for a certain time, from duty, in order to allow them undisturbed attendance on their solemn festivals. I am disposed to think that, in this respect, Austria is a little less barbarous than our own arrogant islanders, although she does not adopt that great symbol of civilization, the ecclesiastical discipline and other national peculiarities of England.'

When we consider that a hundred thousand men are lost to the military strength of the empire, owing to the bigotry which lately raged so fiercely, and when we reflect on the policy of Austria, which incorporates with its armies loyal subjects who are not even christians, we must confess, with astonishment at the fact, that scarcely can even the Spaniards or the Portuguese vie with us in such an instance of infatuated intolerance.

That there is, independently of our present danger, as it were a physical and moral necessity for throwing the army
and

and navy open to the Irish population, is apparent, we conceive, from the statement offered in the following passage :

‘ The merits of the new military plan as tending to disburthen the population of Ireland, and to augment the strength of the empire, were clearly, justly, and with a perfect knowledge of the subject, detailed by Lord Grenville and Lord Howick. These ministers had certainly the advantage of most accurate sources of information. There was, however, one branch of the subject, and a most momentous and extensive one, which, if I recollect right, remained untouched in the several discussions. It was one of the evils of the old penal system, that it very much narrowed the means of disposing and providing for young men in the several classes, which are raised above the thought or necessity of manual labour. The service of the Continental Powers constituted for a long time the outlet for this youth, as I have just observed with regret, in tracing the connection formed and not yet obliterated between Ireland and these countries. During the space of about forty years, under the promising circumstances of our domestic situation, this resort declined, and for nearly the last twenty, it ceased entirely ; whilst at the same time the number of families daily augments, to whom such an outlet is desirable. Will not the persons so thrown upon the country, be ready leaders of discontent ? The bayonet to be sure is a resource for obedience ; let them mean as they may, it is the resource to which the doctrines of my Lord Sidmouth and Mr. Perceval tend, when these doctrines are applied to the great population of this country ; and let me ask, do the circumstances of Britain at this day, allow this option of the bayonet, as the mode of managing its most disposable force, one fourth of its population ? Such is the uncalculating improvidence of Ireland, that our National Bank, giving employment to about five hundred persons as clerks, declines to admit Catholics in the number. Ministers will not allow the sword, nor the Directors of the Bank the pen. What then is to be the destination of this people ? Here again is another of the hopeful expectations formed with respect to Ireland. Idleness is generally the cause of mischief ; desperation in this instance is superadded, and it is expected, that discontent and turbulence shall not follow ! ! !’

We are also informed that

‘ Few were at a loss to perceive, several months before the dissolution of the late Ministry, that a plan was on foot to render Government unpopular with a part of the Protestants, if it restrained certain indiscreet or intemperate proceedings ; or with the Catholics, if falling short of the general tenor of its language, the suspicion or imputation could arise of half measures or connivance.—The snare was not laid in vain ; men perhaps superior to that scene of little factious meanness, in which they were condemned to drudge, were outwitted by persons possessing not one tenth of their good sense, and but a limited portion of their integrity or intentions.’

The author thus describes the body of which he is the advocate, and thus expresses his sentiments of those who lately attempted to ameliorate its situation :

‘ I appre-

• I apprehend that many persons of upright views and good sense, are, in this respect, misled; considering the Irish Catholics in the light of a sect, and not as they truly are, a people. I believe them even to exceed Mr. Newenham's calculation (solid and ingenious as that calculation undoubtedly is) of five millions; but, which is infinitely more important, these millions are formed into regular society, with all its ranks, classes, and gradations. A gentry cultivated and enlightened; acute and flourishing merchants; prosperous traders of every denomination; professional men, trained in science, and exercised in the practice of business; a body of Clergy, regularly classed, established in public opinion, and maintaining themselves even more by the respect which their conduct secures, than by the influence of their situation; learned divines; eloquent preachers; charitable establishments for the education of the poor in every principal town, to the care of which amiable and exemplary persons of either sex devote themselves, (I do not pause to praise a deed far beyond my powers of commendation) secluding themselves from society, and abandoning every concern for this occupation of benevolence.

• This is the ground upon which the public men of this empire are now called upon to act; this is the people whom the late administration projected to attract to the state by a closer interest, and whom certain of their successors appear disposed to repudiate. Without any other than general means of observation, there appears to me in the displaced cabinet, that sense of character, that enlargement of views, that cultivation of intellect, which attract involuntary respect. The unbiassed and independant tribute of that respect I do sincerely pay them. Their views of policy, with respect to this ill-fated country, were accurate and just, and although unsuccessful in their wishes, they have unequivocally demonstrated, "too high indeed the price of knowledge," the sincerity of their intentions: upon these topics there is no second opinion. What I consider to have been injudicious, or imperfect in the management of Ireland, under their influence, is stated candidly, and with a view to better hopes; but with the advantage of experience, and in the calm moment of retrospect, it is much more easy to descant on what you suppose to have been done amiss, than to have chosen your path with steadiness and decision, under a choice of difficulties, in the fiery ordeal of discordant parties and pretensions. "Their fall from power, which like death canonizes and sanctifies a great character," forbids me to deal lightly with the merits of these eminent statesmen."

We regard the ministration of relief to Ireland not only as just, wise, and expedient, but as a measure that is urgently pressed on us if we value our very safety and existence; and we have some consolation in knowing this to be a sentiment which daily becomes more and more prevalent among the best informed men of all parties.

ART. IX. *An authentic Narrative of the proceedings of the expedition under the command of Brigadier-General Craufurd, until its arrival at Monte Video; with an account of the Operations against Buenos Ayres under the command of Lieutenant General Whitelocke.* By an Officer of the expedition. 8vo. pp. 220, and two Maps. 1cs. 6d. Boards. Printed for the author, and sold at No. 18. Chapel Place, Oxford Chapel; also by Egerton, Whitehall.

IT is stated by the author that this narrative was originally written by way of enabling him to dissipate the tediousness incidental to long voyages, and for the amusement of his friends, without being intended for publication: but that unexpected events, and not the little vanity of becoming a journalist, determined him to follow the advice of those who, after having perused the manuscript, recommended that it should be committed to the press. Above all, however, he says, he was actuated by a strong sentiment of *duty towards his companions in arms*; who, to obviate the imputation of their having disgraced the British army, by being deficient in those qualities which peculiarly constitute the character of its soldiers, require to have circumstantial details of their operations against *Buenos Ayres* laid before the public eye. He admits the possibility of his having been misled in some few instances by wrong information: but he asserts with confidence that, as he was a spectator of the most important events which he records, he has stated them correctly. His observations, he says, on the failure of the attack of that place, and on the apparent causes of that misfortune, arose from a lively sense of its being disgraceful and injurious to every individual concerned in it; and the justice of them, he is satisfied, will be both allowed and supported by the voice of his fellow soldiers.

We need scarcely remark that, under these circumstances, it would have been very desirable that this detail should have been sanctioned by the writer's name. He has, however, chosen to withhold it; and though it has reached our ears, we do not feel authorized to repeat it in this place. We proceed, then, to observe that he divides his narrative into two parts; the first of which contains an account of the voyage performed and the places visited by the expedition under Brigadier Craufurd, from its departure on the 12th November 1806 from Palmouth, to its arrival at Monte Video on the 12th of June 1807. The second part relates to the transactions in South America, in the short period during which our troops maintained a footing in it; or from the time of the capture of Buenos Ayres by General Beresford, 25th June 1806, to the 7th
of

of July 1807, when the definitive treaty for our evacuating it was signed.

The author does not pretend to have added much to the descriptions given by others of St. Jago, the Cape of Good Hope, and St. Helena: but he conceives that his detail of the winds, weather, and other circumstances, on which the voyages materially depended, may afford useful information to those who may perform them hereafter, or pursue the same tracks. His accounts seem to be in general sufficiently explicit, except when he speaks of military works: in regard to which they are certainly defective, through inattention to the particulars that are principally connected with the importance, utility, advantages, and defences of such works. His phraseology on such occasions is far from being classical or correct. In describing, for instance, the works at the Cape of Good Hope, he says;

'The castle situated to the eastward of the town is a regular pentagon, said to have been constructed by the famous Cohorn on his way to *India*. Round the counterscarp is raised a second parapet, *fronted* by another ditch, which is again defended by a covered way to the eastward. This second parapet is partly washed, at high water, by the sea, and mounted, in this direction, with very heavy guns and mortars. There is but one entrance into the body of the place, and it is on the town side; but there is a passage through the counterguard leading into the country; both are defended with ravelins, that in front of the eastern passage having retired flanks. The whole of the works are reveted with stone. From the castle runs an intrenchment along the beach, flanked at certain distances with artillery: at the distance of about one thousand yards it takes a *rectangular direction*, and ascends for about seven hundred yards: this last face is defended by four small redoubts, and the only parts of the lines that are kept in any state of repair, the intermediate spaces being entirely in ruins. A *heavy* battery covering a strong tower, called after General Craig, is placed about a half mile in advance of the lines: two blockhouses about one mile asunder stand nearly at the foot of the perpendicular rock above them. An enemy in possession of these two buildings would render the whole of the works already described perfectly useless. To the North-west of the town, and at the bottom of the *Lion's Rump*, are three *heavy* batteries, which command the entrance of the Bay in this direction, as well as a great part of it after ships have entered.'

Now this description is not only defective, but is also in some parts confused and hardly intelligible. The narrator does not give the length of the exterior side, from which the pentagonal citadel, or castle, as he calls it, has been constructed; the height of a section of the work and of either ravelin; the widths of the ditches in front of them; the lengths

lengths of the flanks and faces of any bastion; the magnitude of its flanked angles, &c. &c. He talks of the *Town-side* of it, instead of the front nearest to or looking towards the town; of intermediate *spaces* instead of intermediate *works* being entirely in ruins; of one part of the works *taking a rectangular direction*, instead of forming a right angle with another part of them, &c. He has also certainly mistaken a ravelin for a counterguard, since the passages into and out of works are almost always in the curtains, and are covered by the ravelins when there are any: but counterguards are never placed opposite to the curtains, being constructed beyond the main ditch for the purpose of covering the salient angles and faces of the bastions, and are generally called *envelopes*, from the circumstance of their embracing those parts.

It appears that General Beresford's misfortune chiefly arose from his having concentrated his force in the castle of Buenos Ayres, which is completely commanded by all the adjoining houses; and that it might have been avoided, had he occupied El Retiro.

The author's plan of Monte Video has every appearance of being correct; and it shews, beyond the possibility of contradiction, that the place is altogether untenable and defenceless. It seems to be, throughout its whole extent, devoid of regular defences: the citadel is on too small a scale to be of any use; and had the town been surrounded with a substantial rampart, properly reveted with masonry, we might have fired at the wall near the South-gate for six months, at the distance of six hundred yards, without making a practicable breach in it. We have before alluded to this subject; and we repeat our observation that, if our not establishing batteries nearer to the point of attack was owing to the want of intrenching tools for carrying on approaches, a culpable neglect prevailed in some department which ought to be investigated, and which occasioned an unnecessary destruction of a number of brave men. The writer says that 'the battery of six guns raised against the South-gate was on the prolongation of the lower flank of the demi-bastion protecting it:' but a demi-bastion has only one flank. The work near that gate is not what is usually called a demi-bastion, but is the half of a bastion *coupé* or *accolé*, or of what is termed *un bastion en tenaille*, consisting of a flank, a face, and a demi-tenaille, across the direction of which prolonged the battery was erected. Had the breach been made close to this demi-tenaille, the troops in their assault would have been covered from the fire of its guns.

The principal circumstances, which attract the attention of the reader in this account of the attack on Buenos Ayres,—a town perfectly open, and not even partially inclosed with works of any kind,—are the following :

1st. That the assault was delayed till day-light, by means of which the troops were distinctly seen by the Spaniards, and in course were the more severely galled and annoyed by their fire.

2d. That, instead of directing the attack solely on El Retiro and Residencia, which over-look and command the town, the leaders of the various columns were directed to penetrate along different streets to the Rio de la Plata, without any instructions in regard to what they were to do when they should reach it, the means by which they were to communicate with and support one another, or the points on which a retreat (if necessary) should be effected.

3d. That the plan of attack was such as to prevent either courage or perseverance from being successful, the troops being prohibited on pain of death from firing a single shot, and ordered to use the bayonet only, against brick walls and houses strongly barricaded.

4th. That the bombardment, which the Spaniards dreaded more than any thing, and which their own officers allowed would have compelled them to yield up the place, since they had nothing to oppose to it but a few guns without cover, was ordered to be discontinued about half an hour after it commenced.

5th. That, after we had obtained possession of El Retiro and Residencia, the necessity is not apparent for General Whitelocke having agreed to such a treaty, or convention, as he concluded with the enemy.

6th. That the Commander in chief, with General Gower, and their staff, when the army was sent into Buenos Ayres, remained behind, just within the sound of cannon.

The author appears to narrate facts with candour, expressing his sentiments sometimes strongly, but by no means acrimoniously. *Pendente lite*, we also abstain from farther remarks.

Art. X. *Memoirs of John Lord de Joinville, Grand Seneschal of Champagne*, written by Himself: containing a History of Part of the Life of Louis IX. King of France, surnamed St. Louis, including an Account of that King's Expedition to Egypt in the Year 1248. To which are added, the Notes and Dissertations of M. Du-Cange on the above; together with the Dissertations of M. le Baron de la Bastie on the Life of St. Louis, M. l'Evesque de la Ravaliere and M. Falconet on the Assassins of Syria, from the *Mémoires de l'Académie de Belles Lettres et Inscriptions de France*. The whole translated by Thomas Johnes, Esq. 2 vols. 4to. 4l. 4s. Boards. Printed at the Hafod Press; and sold in London by Longman and Co. 1807.

IT was natural that Mr. Johnes, who had deservedly gained high credit by his edition of Froissart, (see our last number,) should be requested to undertake a translation of the father of the vernacular French historians. We are glad that he has been so solicited; and we congratulate our countrymen on the opportunity which they now have of becoming acquainted with the shrewd and ingenuous Lord de Joinville, and with the pious St. Louis, his friend and master, one of the best kings with whom any age has been blessed.

From modern compilers, however able and faithful, we can gain only a very imperfect knowledge of past times. If we would know the character of remote ages, the persons who figured in them, and the events which distinguished them, we must peruse our original historians; we must have recourse to narratives composed at the period: for the rudest documents of time will often suggest to the reflecting mind more real information than whole volumes of a modern date. As well might we expect to learn the manners and sentiments of the heroic ages of Greece from Pope, or the true design of Virgil from Dryden, as the genius and character of the English and French of the days of chivalry from Rapin and Hume, or Mezeray and Daniel. Not satisfied, then, with a dim and confused light on these points, we must give some attention to cotemporary monuments; and adepts in this pursuit well know how to derive instruction from the legends, the poems, the homilies, the ordinances, and the private muniments, which have escaped the general wreck.

On the present occasion, Mr. Johnes is the mere translator; and the antiquary and collector of texts, who appears to so much advantage in the late edition of Froissart, is here perfectly invisible. Connected with this work, we admit, are matters which ought to be undertaken only by a Frenchman; but we could mention others to which Mr. Johnes was fully equal, and by discussing which he would have greatly enhanced

ced the service which, as translator, he has rendered to the public. It was proper that Joinville should be accompanied by the notes of du Cange: but subsequent researches have rendered corrections necessary in some places, and additions in others. The same observations will apply to most of the Dissertations; yet still, in their unimproved state, we do not regret to see them placed within the reach of the curious English reader: nor are we displeased to find included in these volumes the remarks of the Baron de Bastie. Though by no means a sagacious critic, he is not wanting in learning; and it must be allowed that, though he might have made more of his subject, he furnishes us with information which is not elsewhere to be obtained, and satisfies us as to the authenticity of this antient production, generally. Internal evidence, which lends effectual aid to the facts and reasonings of the noble antiquary, also induces us to believe that the liberties taken with this venerable monument of a rude and tempestuous period are greater than have been in general stated. We should conjecture that to point these out, with something approaching to certainty, would not be a difficult task to an acute and judicious French antiquary; and if pursuits of this kind should ever again revive in France, we hope to see this service attempted.

The first of these volumes contains the genealogy of the house of Joinville: a dissertation on the life of St. Louis written by the Lord de Joinville, by M. Le Baron de la Bastie: and the history of St. Louis by John Lord de Joinville, with notes by Charles du Fresne, Sieur du Cange.

As Mr. Johnes chuses scarcely to appear *in propria persona* on the present occasion, we must follow his example, and introduce our readers to the venerable Seneschal by means of the French work, of which he has availed himself for a similar purpose:

‘Two academicians differ in opinion with Du Cange, as to the year in which the lord de Joinville was born.

‘M. de la Bastie fixes on the year 1218 or 1219, and M. l’Evêque de la Ravalierre on 1214, while Du Cange asserts that he was born in 1220.

‘It will be sufficient to say here, that Joinville was attached, from his youngest years, to the court of Thibaud, king of Navarre, and count of Champagne, and that he early acquired all the knowledge of that age, and shewed himself afterwards equal to his most enlightened contemporaries.

‘His society being courted, on account of his family-connections and his personal qualities, he accompanied Louis IX. in all his expeditions, ~~excepting~~ that to Tunis, which he declined, from a fore-sight of its unfortunate termination. The familiarity with which Louis

Louis honoured him, gave him an opportunity of tracing the links of every event of his reign. The candour and simplicity of the recital which he has left us of these events afford strong proofs of his exactness. He does not extend his account of facts farther than what he personally witnessed.

‘ We do not think the ingenuous narration of this loyal servant of St. Louis can be read without emotion, when, having given his opinion in the council to remain in Palestine, contrary to that of the other members, he is fearful of having lost the affection of his virtuous master. We imagine ourselves present at one of those affecting scenes, when Henry IV. and Sully made up their quarrels.

‘ These memoirs, which Joinville finished in 1309, and published after the death of Philip the fair, have always been highly esteemed by the public.

‘ Although they include a space but of six years, they give us sufficient information respecting the military system of those days, and the principles of administration adopted by St. Louis. They present to us a faithful picture of the customs and manners of our ancestors: they charm us by the affecting simplicity of style, which is one of its greatest merits; and if we wish to become acquainted with the noble mind of St. Louis, it is in them displayed with the most exact truth.

‘ Among the different editions of these memoirs, the two most approved of are the edition of Du Cange printed in 1668, and the one published by the late M. Capperonnier in 1761. Each of them makes one volume folio.’—

‘ The remarks and dissertations with which Du Cange has enriched his edition, clear up a number of important facts contained in the memoirs of Joinville. They throw the greatest light on many points which are particularly connected with the customs of that period, with the institution of chivalry and its duties, and which forms a part of the French national antiquities.’

Concerning the extracts from the Arabic manuscripts, which are here translated (as we presume) from the French version, and not from the originals, it is truly observed that ‘ they give details which are both instructive and pleasing to read, and confirm the truth of the narratives of the Lord de Joinville.’

Of the pious turn of the good king Louis IX., we have a striking instance in the ensuing account;

‘ When returning from Asia we were driven near to the isle of Cyprus by a wind called Garbun which is not one of the principal winds that rule the sea; and our vessel struck with such force on a rock as frightened our sailors, who, in despair, tore their clothes and beards. The good king leaped out of his bed bare-footed, with only a gown on, and ran to throw himself on his knees before the holy sacrament like one instantly expecting death. Shortly after, the weather became calm. On the morrow, the king called me and said, ‘ Senes-

châl, know that God has shewn to us a part of his great power : for one of these trifling winds, which scarcely deserves a name, had almost drowned the king of France, his queen, children and family ; and St. Anceaune declares, they are the menaces of our Lord, as if God had said, ' Now see and feel that if I had willed it, you would all have been drowned ' The good king added, ' Lord God, why dost thou menace us ? for the threat thou utterest is neither for thy honour nor profit ; and if thou hadst drowned us all, thou wouldst not have been richer nor poorer : thy menaces, therefore, must be intended for our advantage, and not for thine, if we be capable of understanding and knowing them. By these threatenings,' said the holy king, ' we ought to know, that if we have in us the smallest thing displeasing to God, we should instantly drive it from us ; and, in like manner, we should diligently perform every thing that we suppose would give him pleasure and satisfaction. If we thus act, our Lord will give us more in this world and in the next than we ourselves can imagine. But should we act otherwise, he will do to us as the master does to his wicked servant ; for if the wicked servant will not correct himself, in consequence of the menaces he receives, his master punishes him in his body, and in his goods until death, or farther were it possible. In suchwise will our Lord punish the perverse sinner who shall not be reclaimed by the threats which he hears ; and he will be the more heavily stricken in body and goods.'

If the human mind, at this time, could not boast of comprehensive views, and was little accustomed to close reasoning or logical precision, it appears not to have been deficient in address and shrewdness. The Lord de Joinville tells us that ' the good king took infinite pains to make him firmly believe the christian laws which God has given us ;' adding,

' He then asked me if I knew the name of my father. I answered, that his name was Simon. And how do you know that ? said he. I replied, that I was certain of it, and believed it firmly, because my mother had told it me several times. Then, added he, you ought perfectly to believe the articles of the faith which the apostles of our Lord have testified to you, as you have heard the credo chaunted every Sunday. He told me that a bishop of Paris, whose Christian name was William informed him that a very learned man in sacred theology once came to converse with, and consult him ; and that when he first opened his case he wept most bitterly. The bishop said to him, ' Master, do not thus lament and bewail, for there cannot be any sinner, however enormous, but that God has the power to pardon.' ' Ah,' replied the learned man, ' know, my lord bishop, that I cannot do any thing but weep ; for I am much afraid that, in one point, I am an unbeliever, in not being well assured with respect to the holy sacrament that is placed on the altar, according to what the holy church teaches and commands to be believed. This is what my mind cannot receive ; and I believe,' added he, ' that it is caused by the temptation of the enemy.'

' Master,'

‘Master,’ answered the bishop, ‘now tell me when the enemy thus tempts you, or leads you into this error, is it pleasing to you?’ ‘Not at all,’ said he; ‘on the contrary, it is very disgusting, and displeases me more than I can tell you.’

‘Well, I ask you again,’ said the bishop, ‘if ever you accepted of money or worldly goods, to deny, with your mouth, the holy sacrament on the altar, or the other sacraments of the church?’ ‘You may be truly assured,’ answered the learned man, ‘that I have never accepted money, or worldly goods, for such purposes; and that I would rather have my limbs cut off, one by one, while I was alive, than in any way to deny these sacraments.’

‘The bishop then remonstrated with him on the great merit which he gained in the sufferings of such temptations, and added, ‘You know, master, that the king of France is now carrying on a war against the king of England. You know, likewise, that the castle situated nearest to the frontiers of each monarch is la Rochelle, in Poitou; now tell me, if the good king of France was to nominate you governor of the castle of la Rochelle, on the frontiers, and to make me governor of the castle of Montlehery, which is in the heart of France, to whom would the king, at the end of the war, feel himself most obliged, you or me, for having prevented the loss of his castles?’

‘Certainly, sir,’ replied the learned man, ‘I should suppose it would be me, and for this good reason, that I had well guarded la Rochelle, as being in a more dangerous situation.’ ‘Master,’ answered the bishop, ‘I assure you that my heart is like the castle of Montlehery; for I am perfectly convinced of the truth respecting the holy sacrament displayed on the altar, as well as the other sacrament, without having the most trifling doubts on their subject. I must however tell you, that whatever good-will God the Creator bears me, because I believe his commandments without doubting, he will have double satisfaction in you, for having preserved to him your heart in the midst of perplexity and tribulation; and that for no earthly good, nor for any distress that adversity might bring on your body, you would ever deny or abandon your faith in his religion. It is for this reason, I say, that your state is more pleasing to him than mine; and I am much rejoiced thereat, and entreat that you will keep it in your remembrance, for he will succour you in your distress.’

‘The learned man, on hearing these words, threw himself on his knees before the bishop, and felt his mind much at ease, and was well contented with the bishop’s comfortable advice.’

Though our Saviour commands us to “judge not,” how long have Christians been in learning that forbearance on account of religious differences is a virtue? To this virtue, even the good Louis was an utter stranger; since, in relating a dispute between some Christians and Jews, he concluded by observing to the Seneschal:

‘I tell you, that no one, however learned or perfect a theologian he may be, ought to dispute with the Jews; but

the layman, whenever he hears the Christian faith contemned, should defend it, not only by words, but with a sharp-edged sword, with which he should strike the scandalizers and disbelievers, until it enter their bodies as far as the hilt."

Du Cange, in a note on this place, penned in 1666, very cautiously discovers a decided leaning to the side of toleration; and he quotes a Greek writer, who held errors in religious matters pardonable, "forasmuch," says he, "as those who embrace these erroneous and heretical opinions commonly do so from the firm belief which they have of their truth." He refers, among other works on the subject, to the exquisite preface of Thuanus, which no unbiassed mind can peruse without being a convert to religious freedom in its utmost extent.

The Lord de Joinville confirms preceding accounts of the scandalous behaviour of the Christians, in the course of these expeditions; and if, under the immediate eye of a Prince so vigilant, powerful, and religious as Louis IX., the troops could commit such irregularities as are here stated, what may we not suppose their excesses to have been when placed under no such restraint? This honest narrator relates that

'The king's officers, when they were at their ease, and comfortably lodged in the city of Damietta, instead of well treating and entertaining the merchants, and those who followed the army with provisions, hired out to them stalls and workmen at as dear a rate as they possibly could. This conduct was spread abroad to distant countries; and those who would have supplied the army with provisions delayed doing so, which was a great evil and loss.

'The barons, knights and others, who ought to have attended to their money-concerns, and to have practised economy, as a resource in times of need, began to give sumptuous banquets in rivalry to each other, with the utmost abundance of the most delicious meats. The commonalty likewise gave themselves up to debauchery, and violated both women and girls. Great were the evils in consequence; for it became necessary for the king to wink at the greatest liberties of his officers and men. The good king even told me, that at a stone's throw round his own pavilion were several brothels kept by his personal attendants. Other disorders were going forward, and to a greater extent than any person had hitherto seen.'

The accounts which the good Seneschal gives of what he saw and learnt in Egypt are descriptive of the simplicity of those days, and present more of truth mixed with fable than we might have expected:

'It is proper that I say something here of the river which runs through Egypt, and which comes from the terrestrial paradise; for such things should be known to those who are desirous of understanding the subject I am writing on. This river differs from all others, for the more brooks fall into a large river, the more it is divided

divided into small streamlets, and spread over a country; but this river has not such aids, and seems always the same. When arrived in Egypt, it spreads its waters over the country. About the period of St. Remy's day, it expands itself into seven branches, and thence flows over the plains. When the waters are retired, the labourers appear, and till the ground with ploughs without wheels, and then sow wheat, barley, rice, cummin, which succeed so well that it is not possible to have finer crops.

'No one can say whence this annual increase of water comes, except from God's mercy. Were it not to happen, Egypt would produce nothing from the very great heat of that country; for it is near to the rising sun, and it scarcely ever rains but at very long intervals.

'This river is quite muddy from the crowds of people of that and other countries who, towards evening, come thither to seek water to drink. They put into their vessels which hold it four almonds or four beans, which they shake well, and on the morrow it is wondrous clear and fit to drink. When this river enters Egypt, there are expert persons accustomed to the business, who may be called the fishermen of this stream, and who in the evenings cast their nets into the water, and in the mornings frequently find many spices in them, which they sell in these countries dearly, and by weight; such as cinnamon, ginger, rhubarb, cloves, lignum-aloes, and other good things. It is the report of the country, that they come from the terrestrial paradise, and that the wind blows them down from these fine trees, as it does in our forests the old dry wood. What falls into the river is brought down with it, and collected by merchants, who sell it to us by weight.

'I heard in the country of Babylon, that the sultan had frequently attempted to learn whence this river came, by sending experienced persons to follow the course of it. They carried with them a bread called biscuit, for they would not have found any on their route, and on their return reported, that they had followed the course of the river until they came to a large mountain of perpendicular rocks, which it was impossible to climb, and over these rocks fell the river. It seemed to them, that on the top of this mountain were many trees; and they said, they had seen there many strange wild beasts, such as lions, serpents, elephants, and other sorts, which came to gaze at them as they ascended the river. These travellers, not daring to advance further, returned to the sultan.'

We insert a part of the writer's description of the *Greek fire*, omitting his statements of the terror which it occasioned, and the pious reflections and acts which it called forth;

'One night the Turks brought forward an engine, called by them *La Perriere*, a terrible engine to do mischief, and placed it opposite to the *chas-chateils*, which sir Walter de Cured and I were guarding by night. From this engine they flung such quantities of greek fire that it was the most horrible sight ever witnessed.

'As soon, therefore, as the Turks threw their fires, we flung ourselves on our hands and knees, as a wise man had advised; and
this

this time they fell between our two cats into a hole in front, which our people had made to extinguish them; and they were instantly put out by a man appointed for that purpose. This greek fire, in appearance, was like a large tun, and its tail was of the length of a long spear: the noise which it made was like to thunder; and it seemed a great dragon of fire flying through the air, giving so great a light with its flame, that we saw in our camp as clearly as in broad day. Thrice this night did they throw the fire from La Perrière, and four times from cross-bows.'

The following passage was disbelieved by Voltaire, but Gibbon was inclined to give it credit:

'When the knights of the haulecca had slain the sultan, the admirals ordered their trumpets and nacquaires to sound merrily before the king's tent; and it was told the king, that the admirals had holden a council and were very desirous to elect him sultan of Babylon. The king one day asked me, if I were of opinion, that if the kingdom of Babylon had been offered him, he ought to have taken it? I answered, that if he had, he would have done a foolish thing, seeing they had murdered their lord. Notwithstanding this, the king told me, he should have scarcely refused it.

'This project only failed from the admirals saying among themselves, that the king was the proudest Christian they ever knew; and that, if they elected him sultan, he would force them to turn Christians, or have them put to death. This they said from observing, that whenever he quitted his lodgings, he made the sign of the Cross on the ground, and crossed his body all over. The Saracens added, that if their Mahomet had allowed them to suffer the manifold evils that God had caused the king to undergo, they would never have had any confidence in him, nor paid him their adorations.'

As the latter celebrated writer comments on the credibility of this statement, he might have observed that the supposition of the Frenchman makes his venerable countryman a deliberate and wilful falsifier.

It would seem that the pious king was subject to sudden gusts of passion; and a passage which substantiates this charge also shews that Princes, in those days, allowed a greater familiarity on the part of their subjects than is permitted in modern courts:

'When it was near Easter, I left Acre, and went to visit the king at Cæsarea, where he was employed in fortifying and inclosing it. On my arrival, I found him in conversation with the legate, who had never left him during this expedition to the holy land. On seeing me, he quitted the legate, and, coming to me, said, 'Lord de Joinville, is it really true, that I have only retained you until this ensuing Easter? should it be so, I beg you will tell me how much I shall give you from this Easter to that of this time twelve months.'

'I replied, that I was not come to him to make such a bargain, and

and that I would not take more of his money ; but I would offer other terms, which were, that he should promise never to fly into a passion for any thing I should say to him, which was often the case, and I engaged, that I would keep my temper whenever he refused what I should ask.'

' When he heard my terms, he burst into laughter, and said that he retained me accordingly : then, taking me by the hand, he led me before the legate to his council, and repeated the convention that had been agreed to between us. Every one was joyous on hearing it, and consequently I remained.'

Louis's personal character is thus farther illustrated :

' I will now speak of the state and mode of living of the king, after his return from Palestine. In regard to his dress, he would never more wear minever or squirrel furs, nor scarlet robes, nor gilt spurs, nor use stirrups. His dress was of camlet or persian, and the fur trimmings of his robes were the skins of garmules or the legs of hares. He was very sober at his meals, and never ordered any thing particular or delicate to be cooked for him, but took patiently whatever was set before him. He mixed his wine with water according to its strength, and drank but one glass. He had commonly at his meals many poor persons behind his chair, whom he fed, and then ordered money to be given to them. After dinner, he had his chaplains who said grace for him ; and when any noble person was at table with him, he was an excellent companion, and very friendly. He was considered as by far the wisest of any in his council ; and as a proof of his wisdom, whenever any thing occurred that demanded immediate attention, he never waited for his council, but gave a speedy and decided answer'—

' I have been constantly with him for twenty-two years, but never in my life, for all the passions I have seen him in, did I hear him swear or blaspheme God, his holy mother, or any of the saints. When he wished to affirm any thing, he said, ' Truly it is so ;' or, ' In truth, it is not so.' It was very clear that on no earthly considerations would he deny his God ; for when the sultan and admirals of Egypt wanted to make that the condition, should he break the treaty, he would never consent ; and when he was told this was the last proposal of the Turks, he replied, that he would rather die than commit such a crime.

' I never heard him name or mention the word devil if it was not in some book that made it necessary ; and it is very disgraceful to the princes and kingdom of France to suffer it, and hear the name ; for you will see that in any dispute one will not say three words to another in abuse, but he will add, ' Go to the devil,' or other bad words. Now it is very shocking thus to send man or woman to the devil, when they are by baptism become the creatures of God. In my castle of Joinville, whoever makes use of this word is instantly buffeted, and the frequency of bad language is abolished there.'

We must now take our leave of this antient document ; which we have no doubt has been subjected to numerous interpo-

terpolations and great liberties, but which, it is abundantly clear, is in the main authentic, and curious as well as interesting.

The second volume includes the Dissertations of M. du Cange; extracts from such Arabian manuscripts as speak of historical events relative to the reign of St. Louis; explanations relative to the old Man of the mountain, Prince of the Assassins, by M. L'Evesque de la Ravalere; and two Dissertations on the Assassins, by M. Falconet.—Though we admit the value of these papers, which form acceptable additions to the stores of learning placed within the reach of our countrymen, yet so slight is their connection with the venerable narrative of which we have been giving an account, that we do not deem it proper to dwell on them at any length. We would also observe, and in doing this it is far from our intention to derogate from the high and acknowledged claims of M. du Cange, that criticism had not in his time attained the perspicacity with which it has since surprised the world; and that most of the subjects, which he treats in these performances, have been since more fully investigated. Still it must be allowed that his papers afford much curious matter which is not elsewhere to be found; as a proof of which, let one or two instances suffice.

Respecting the Oriflamme, or the banner of St. Denis, of which so much is said in the early parts of the history of France, M. du Cange thus writes:

‘It was the banner, or usual standard, which the abbot and monks of the royal abbey of St. Denis made use of in their private wars; that is to say, in those which they undertook to recover their possessions from the hands of usurpers, or to prevent them from being seized upon. But as their ecclesiastical state did not allow them to use arms personally, they delegated this to a proxy, who received their standard from the hands of the abbot, and bore it before him in battle. This was the real use made of the oriflamme, although some learned persons have written otherwise, and have advanced what is but little conformable to truth.’—

‘The name of Oriflamme was given to this standard because it was slit up from the bottom to resemble flames, or perhaps from its being of a red colour; when it fluttered in the wind, it appeared at a distance like flames, and, besides, the lance to which it was fixed was gilded.—The oriflamme was then the particular banner of the abbot and monastery of St. Denis, which they had borne in their wars by their proxies, who, in quality of defenders or protectors of monasteries and churches, undertook to lead their vassals in the defence of their rights, and to bear their standards in war: hence they have been called Standard-bearers to the church, ‘Signiferi Ecclesiarum.’ The counts of Vexin and of Pontoise had this title in the monastery of Saint Denis, of which they were the proxies and guardians, and

in this quality they bore the oriflamme in the wars which they undertook in the defence of its property. From this the banner has been by authors more commonly called the standard of St. Denis, not because it was preserved in the church of that monastery, but because it was the banner usually borne in the wars in which this abbey was concerned. We may therefore conclude that it was not borne by our kings in their wars until they were become proprietors of the counties of Pontoise and Mante; that is to say, of the Vexin, which happened during the reign of Philipps I. or of Louis le gros, his son.

M. du C. is also of opinion that the country of Vexin fell into the domain of the kings of France, about the time of Louis le gros;

‘And that it was in this quality they first bore the standard of St. Denis, or the oriflamme, in their wars. History is silent on the subject before the reign of Louis le gros; for I pay no attention to those who have advanced, that it was known from the times of Dogebert, Pepin, and Charlemagne, all such histories as have been so fertile in fables being very properly reputed apocryphal.

‘We may then justly conclude that Louis le gros was the first of our monarchs who, in quality of count of the Vexin, took the oriflamme from the altar of St. Denis, and had it borne in his armies, as the principal banner of the protector of his kingdom, whose succour he invoked by his cries of battle, more especially when he learnt that Henry V. king of Germany, was marching his troops into France.

‘It has happened, consequently, that our monarchs, who possessed themselves of the rights of these counts, have used this banner in their own wars, as being the standard that bore the name of the protector of their kingdom, as I have before noticed, taking it from off the altar of the church of St. Denis, with the same ceremonies and prayers that were usually observed when it was delivered into the hands of the counts du Vexin, for the private wars of the monastery.’—

‘Several persons have fallen into the error of believing that the oriflamme was never taken from the church of St. Denis but when our kings had unsuccessful wars, to repulse the enemy who was attacking their kingdom, or prevent themselves from being conquered. ‘Et non mie quand on veut conquerer autre pays,’ as Juvenal des Ursins writes, in the year 1386 of his history; or when war was made on the infidels, as Froissart writes, because this standard was, doubtless, the principal one in our armies, whether the war was undertaken for the defence of the frontiers, or in the interior of the kingdom against the enemies of the state.

‘During the reign of Philipps le bel, at the battle of Mons en Puele, in the year 1304, this same oriflamme was borne by Anseau de Chevreuse, a valiant knight, who there lost his life by suffocation from heat and thirst. Meier writes that the French lost this banner in the battle, and that it was taken and torn to pieces by the Flemings. The chronicle of Flanders, it is true, says that the night after
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the combat it was on the ground in the field of battle; but Guillaume Guiart, who was present, as he himself tells us, relates that the oriflamme lost in this battle was not the true one, but a counterfeit, made by order of the king, to excite, on that occasion, the ardour of his soldiers.

‘ We need not, therefore, be surprised if the Flemings were then persuaded they had gained possession of the oriflamme, as they had no rules to distinguish the false from the true one. This account is the more probable, because we read of its being immediately afterward displayed in our armies; for in the year 1315 the king, Louis Hutin, had it borne in his war against the same Flemings, and gave the guard of it to Herpin d’Erquery.

‘ From the reign of Charles VI. history makes no more mention of the oriflamme; it is therefore probable our monarchs ceased to have it borne in their armies from the time the English made themselves masters of Paris, and of the greater part of France, under the reign of Charles VII. who, having driven them out of his kingdom, introduced a new mode of making war, by the establishment of companies of ordinance. He likewise introduced the white ensign, which has since been the principal banner in our armies.’

The inquisitive will find ample gratification in the profusion of oriental learning displayed in M. Falconet’s Dissertations, which close these volumes. We shall only refer to his account of the origin of the Assassins, and of the cause of that devotion to their Prince by which they were so fatally distinguished. The learned Academician, having mentioned some particulars of the several Mohammedan sects, observes that

‘ All these sectaries agree in allowing Ali to be only first Imam after Mohammed; but they count differently in respect to the Imamat, or the sovereign power, both as to temporal and spiritual matters,—a power which they regard as divine, and which cannot be disobeyed or resisted without impiety. It is in one of the branches of these five principal sectaries that we must seek the origin of the Assassins.

‘ Towards the middle of the second century of the Hegira, Giafar al Sadek, that is to say, the just, the sixth of the imams, admitted by the Persians, had several sons: Ismaël, the eldest, died before his father, and the sectaries pretend that the dignity of imam had descended to his issue, in preference to the collateral line. It is from this Ismaël the Assassins have taken the name of Ismaéliens. I could have wished that M. Schultens had made use of this name, in his translation of the life of Salâdin, rather than that of Ismaëlites, the general name of Mohammedans, which the Jews give them, and which they have retained from the Arabians, their ancestors, long called so before the time of Mohammed. Pocock, in his translation of Abulfaragius, shews the same want of attention. M. d’Herbelot, more scrupulous in speaking of our sectaries, always says Ismaéliens, in consequence of an observation which he makes at the word ‘Ismaëlioun.’

* The faction we are speaking of at first excited great troubles, which ended in open rebellion. It was a branch of the descendants of Ismaël, son to Giafar, that took forcible possession of Egypt toward the end of the third century of the Hegira, and reigned there about three hundred years, under the name of Fatimite Caliphs: they were also called African Ismaëliens. Our Ismaëliens, who are those of Asia, established themselves two hundred years later; but their origin may be dated from the death of Giafar, in the middle of the second century of the Hegira, about the year 770 of our æra. This completes exactly the four hundred years which William of Tyre allows for the antiquity of their religion at the time he wrote, nearly in 1170.

* The chief dogmas of the Assassins were the metempsychosis, and the descent of the holy Spirit on the persons of their imams. A strong belief in this last point inspires them with that blind obedience to execute the orders of their sovereign, as if he were a god, and makes them dare death with an intrepidity that is unexampled among the rest of mankind.

* Similar principles, drawn from Magism and Judaism, as well as from Mohammedanism, infected I know not how many enthusiasts prior to the establishment of the Assassins. There is great likelihood that the religion of the Indians entered also into the monstrous mixture of which the Ismaëliens composed theirs.

* Hassan-Sabah, their first chief in Persia, had gone as far as Khaschgar, a town in the Turkestan, to seek, in the dogmas of the Magi and Indians, wherewith to enrich those of his own sect. Already this whole country, even the more northern parts of it, was infected with Indianism (if I may be allowed the word). One of the first khans of the Turkish nation had prevailed on some Bonzes from China and India to come to him, in the seventh century of our æra, at the same moment when Mohammed began to establish his doctrines in the south of Asia. This I learnt from M. de Guignes, who told me he had found it in Chinese books.—

* The Ismaëliens of Persia established themselves in the Kouhestan, in the fifth century of the Hegira, which answers to the eleventh of our æra, and maintained possession about one hundred and seventy years, under eight princes, the first of whom was Hassan Sabah, their founder, and the last Rokneddin, who only reigned one year. His predecessor Alaeddin (this is the true name) reigned for more than twenty-five years: it is not, therefore, surprising that he should be spoken of in preference to his successor, whose reign was so short, and so much the more, because the expedition of Holagou against the Assassins of Persia, which must have lasted for two or three years, must consequently have commenced during the life time of Alaeddin.

Though we are much indebted to Mr. Johnes for laying open these treasures to the British public, we cannot help regretting, as we before intimated, that he did not enhance the favour by accompanying them with a few necessary elucidations. They are, however, presented to us in a handsome

some form, worthy of the translator and of his preceding publications, and are illustrated by a few plates and maps. A vignette, which decorates the title-page of each volume, represents the beautiful seat of Mr. Jones in Cardiganshire, which has since been so unfortunately mutilated by fire.

ART. XI. *Britain independent of Commerce; or Proofs deduced from an Investigation into the true Causes of the Wealth of Nations, that our Riches, Prosperity, and Power, are derived from Resources inherent in ourselves, and would not be affected, even though our Commerce were annihilated.* By William Spence, F.L.S. 8vo. pp. 85. 2s. Cadell and Davies.

SINCE this pamphlet is generally considered as containing the authority and apology for certain recent very important measures adopted by Great Britain, it requires a degree of attention to which it might not otherwise be deemed intitled. Indeed, we confess that, but for this circumstance, we should have dismissed it with very little ceremony; jealous as we own that we are of any attack on those doctrines of political economy which we were the first to hail, which we assisted to circulate, and which on all occasions we have uniformly asserted: being fully satisfied that the objections and cavils here raised against them could mislead none who were in the least acquainted with the subject.

Mr. Spence's avowed design is to furnish consolation to our countrymen under the decline of our manufactures and commerce: an object which he does not attempt to effect by pointing out new channels in which those streams may flow, but by endeavouring to shew that the things of which we are deprived are themselves of little or no value. He sets out with stating that 'manufactures do not create wealth,' and 'that the wealth which we derive from commerce is nothing.' These are the grand consolatory propositions which his tract labours to establish.

The axiom that manufactures are unproductive has not the charms, nor is it liable to the objections, which belong to novelty, since it was a leading tenet of the French economists; but it never, to our knowledge, obtained converts in this country, and has of late been very generally, if not universally, discarded in that which gave it birth; where it is rejected by Canard, Blanc de Volx, Garnier, Say, and Talleyrand, some of whom very properly animadvert on the defects of Dr. Smith's far more improved classification. Indeed, among the mystical paradoxes which that sect blended with most important truths, this has ever been considered as the one which had the

the least colour of probability.—It must be recollected that the economists, notwithstanding their mistakes, rendered the greatest services to the science of political economy; they first traced the natural progress of industry in civilized society, taught us what were the objects in which wealth consisted, and demonstrated the superior value of agriculture, the advantages of internal over foreign commerce, the mischief of restraints on the freedom of trade, and the necessary connection which subsists between the prosperity of states and the liberty of the subject.

Sensible, therefore, of the value of what this school had done for mankind, and grateful for the information which he had personally derived from its discoveries, Dr. Smith treated its errors with a gentleness for which it would be otherwise somewhat difficult to account: but, if his manner were mild, his objections to the arrangement which consigned manufacturers to the class of unproductive labourers were abundantly decisive; and it weakens not the force of these objections, that his own superior classification is still somewhat lame. Yet it is this leading tenet in the creed of the economists which it is the intention of Mr. Spence to revive, and to which such important functions are allotted: a design in which he carries us back to the epoch of the appearance of the economical table, and writes as if things were now precisely in the same state in which they were at that period. He observes:

‘The political economists who have investigated the sources of wealth, may be divided into two great classes; of which one may be termed the mercantile sect, and may be considered as including almost all the authors who have written on this subject, as well as almost all who talk upon it: the other, the agricultural sect, the principles of which were first promulgated by Mons. Quesnoi, and others in France, who have been generally known by the name of the French Economists, and who have had at any time but few followers.’

A writer who is thus negligent in making assertions, it may be expected, will not be very nice in drawing conclusions. So far is it from being the case that all who write and talk on political economy are of the mercantile sect, that we know of no performance which treats professedly of the subject, since the publication of Dr. Smith's great work, and that has attracted the least attention, in which their principles are avowed and defended; nor is it within our knowledge that any person, who is in the least conversant with these discussions, professes and supports them in conversation. How can a man, fresh from the perusal of Dr. Smith, and who appears to have derived from that great writer any information that he may possess on these matters, affix his name to such a paragraph? *The In-*

quiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations corrected the paradoxes of the economists, and gave a death-blow to the mercantile system. These sects, then, instead of dividing mankind on the leading points in political economy, can hardly be said at this day to have any existence.

To the other tenet of Mr. Spence, namely that which represents commerce as unproductive of wealth, we shall hereafter attend; only now observing that with regard to this also, he can establish no pretensions to novelty.

As these points are submitted by Mr. Spence to popular consideration, it may not be improper to take a view of them as they stand on popular grounds. If manufactures are unproductive of wealth, and if commerce does not enrich, how passing strange is the recent history of our own country! France drew a revenue from twenty-five millions of subjects; she has sunken her capital, has several times become bankrupt, and has rioted in the pillage of Europe, yet is she still obliged to assist her revenue by fresh plunder, and to quarter her myrmidons on peaceable states. England, on the contrary, has had all the powers of Europe in her pay, and has for a series of years acted the part of a principal in a struggle which human annals cannot parallel; and she stands at this moment, as yet with unshaken credit, the proud barrier against universal conquest. Have then the flourishing state of our manufactures, and the prosperity of our commerce, had no influence in all this; and has it been wholly effected by some marvellous quality in our soil, and by our pre-eminence in husbandry? Have the skill of our artisans, the operations of our machinery, the transactions of the Royal Exchange, and the equipments and arrivals in our ports, had less connection with this surprising phenomenon, than the Agricultural Society, and the Sheep-shearings at Woburn? If any man can soberly reflect on all this, and remain still a sceptic as to the powers of manufactures and commerce in enriching a country, let him transport himself one hundred years back, and see what was then the state of Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Paisley, and of the metropolis itself; let him compare the result of this inquiry with their actual condition, and will he then deny that their extension and their wealth have not kept pace with the growth of our manufactures, and the increase of our exports? Let him resort to the localities of those new creations reared by the mechanical genius and scientific attainments of an Arkwright, a Bolton, a Watt, and a Wedgwood; let him learn what these vicinities were within the memory of men yet alive, and compare them with the aspect which they now present. If, duly-considering these facts, he will still maintain

tain that manufactures produce no wealth, and that commerce does not enrich, he would not be convinced even though *one were to rise from the dead*;—and with what is it that this light is attempted to be obscured? It is with nothing better than a stale paradox, clumsily formed and awkwardly dressed out; from which, even when robed in the charms of novelty, placed by the side of brilliant truths, and set off with consummate art, the sense and reason of mankind revolted; and which has long since been universally discarded, even by the disciples of that school in which it originated.

We might refer our readers to Dr. Smith for a satisfactory refutation of this tenet, but we are spared that necessity, since Mr. Spence's own work supplies us with ample means for the purpose. After having repeatedly stated that manufactures do not produce wealth, he thus expresses himself; 'in Britain, agriculture has only thriven in consequence of the influence of manufactures, and the increase of this influence is requisite to its further extension.' It follows, then, that manufactures, if not directly the source of wealth, operate indirectly on its production; because without them the grand source of wealth is, by the confession of Mr. Spence, barren; and, as affecting his argument, it matters not whether they immediately produce wealth, or are only requisite in order to render the immediate source productive: in the one and in the other case, their loss is equally fatal. If, then, manufactures are necessary to set in motion that which really generates wealth, what is become of the consolation offered to us under their decline? Mr. Spence also admits that 'as the manufacturers employed in fabricating the articles which commerce exports require food, they will, by their demand for the products of the earth, cause more land to be cultivated, and in a better manner, just as the manufacturers for home-consumption do, and thus indirectly increase the wealth of the nation.' For the purposes of the author's argument, what difference does it make whether manufactures increase the wealth of the nation directly or indirectly? The question is, *do they increase* the wealth of the nation? and Mr. Spence admits that they do. Be it conceded for a moment to him that commerce and manufactures produce wealth only indirectly, will not the loss of them be equally injurious? The sun and the dews of heaven do not directly produce corn, of which the earth is the immediate source: but let the solar influence and genial moisture be withdrawn, and the source becomes barren. In what does this simile fail? The application of it is obvious. When Mr. Spence has, as he thinks, shewn that manufactures do not directly produce wealth, and that commerce does not directly

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enrich, he flatters himself that he has made out his conclusions; and, to use his own words, 'that to a nation such as we are, our commerce is a matter of perfect indifference, and that it is of small importance to us, whether our imports and our exports increase or diminish.' We assert, on the contrary, that even if he had shewn that manufactures and commerce did not *directly* produce wealth, he would have been as remote from these propositions as ever; and that, in order to establish them, it was incumbent on him also to manifest that manufactures and commerce did not *indirectly* produce wealth, which is contrary to his own express repeated admissions. Representing, as Mr. S. does in various passages of his work, that manufactures improve and advance agriculture, and render nations prosperous and rich, he contradicts himself when he afterward asserts that the one and the other 'are matters of small importance,' and even of perfect indifference to us as a nation; 'that manufactures are no source at all of national wealth,' and 'that commerce does not contribute a sixpence to it.'

What must we think, however, of the information and the intellect of that man, who at this time of day can maintain that manufactures do not produce wealth, and that commerce does not enrich a nation; a proposition in which difference of soil is overlooked, and mere animal labour alone is considered; in which the aid that human labour derives from the intervention of machinery, the influence of the elements, and the effects of time, are not taken into calculation; and according to which the wretch who labours the poorest soil under the most inhospitable sky, and whose toil does not gain him a shilling per day, is a productive labourer, while it places an Arkwright and a Bolton, whose machinery saves the labour of hundreds, in the unproductive class? Is not this to introduce distinctions which insult reason, as much as they revolt the feelings? We are misled by words. Why may not the earth be considered as machinery, the agriculturist as a manufacturer, and the produce as manufactures? In manufactures, the natural elements are frequently made essentially to co operate; in various processes, the light, the air, and water, are brought to lend their aid. This was never taken into consideration by the economists, and is not noticed by Mr. Spence. Living in France, *they* saw little of the marvellous effects of manufactures, and territorial wealth was there every thing: but Mr. Spence moves in a scene altogether different, and which forces on the mind very opposite conclusions.

'It is almost universally believed, (says the writer,) that commerce is the greatest possible source of national wealth. In this country, particularly,

particularly, where commerce has been carried to a greater extent than in any other country of the same size, it is the opinion of almost all its inhabitants, that its wealth, its greatness, and its prosperity, have been chiefly derived from its commerce; and, that these advantages can be continued, and increased, only by its continuance and extension.'

The province of commerce is too obvious to be misunderstood; it circulates and distributes wealth, and, by thus inciting to its production, is indirectly the cause of producing it in an incalculable degree. While the general proposition is true that commerce does not produce wealth, it is equally true that it incredibly enriches those nations which engage in it. Where its operations centre, there it accumulates and fixes wealth; and it may be said not untruly to be a source of wealth, and a very fertile one too, as we could demonstrate on the foundation of admissions repeatedly made in the present tract.

Mr. S. is pleased to observe that, 'for whatever a nation purchases in a foreign market, it gives an adequate value, either in money or in other goods; so far then, certainly, it gains no profit nor addition to its wealth. It has changed one sort of wealth for another, but it has not increased the amount it was before possessed of.'—We have here a specimen of the manner in which this writer contrives to puzzle himself, and attempts to confound the ignorant part of his readers. The simple operation of bartering certainly occasions no addition of wealth, but it is indirectly the cause of a two-fold production: namely, of the articles given, and of those that are received in exchange. Discontinue this operation, and both productions will cease.

In the same spirit, the author observes that 'the sticklers for the importance of commerce' (an odd phrase for an Englishman to use) 'fallaciously fancy that the loss of an extensive branch of our export commerce is a diminution of national wealth.' If we are founded in what we have just observed, that, though commerce does not directly increase the wealth of the world, it does directly enrich the spots on which it is cultivated,—as the circumstances of Tyre and Carthage in antient times, and those of Venice, Genoa, the Hans towns, and Holland, in modern days, incontestibly prove,—this is *no* 'fallacious fancy.'

Again, the author adds; 'a great nation possessed of landed property can never gain more than a trifling addition to its wealth from commerce.' Anticipating the objection that may be founded on the cases of Tyre and Venice, and so many other states, he says, 'but they were without territory and they had a carrying trade.' How singular is it that territory, which

which yields revenue itself, should take away that quality from commerce, or in any degree impair it! If, of two merchants having equal commerce, one has a large estate and the other has none, *ceteris paribus*, does the estate occasion the former to derive *no* profit, or *less* profit, from his traffic?

Another curious observation of this writer is that 'it is Europe, Asia, and America, and not Britain, that is enriched by her (Britain's) commerce.' That the advantages to the importer and exporter are reciprocal, contrary to what is here advanced, is a consolatory truth, among the first elements of this science; and the statement and principle of it require only to be once read in Dr. Smith, to be comprehended by the dullest mind. This egregious error sufficiently indicates the noviciate of Mr. Spence in the branch of knowledge in which he affects to be an adept.

If it were necessary to adduce a farther specimen of the want of acquaintance with his subject which Mr. S. betrays, we should refer to his miserable attempt to cavil at, and even to ridicule, the observations of Dr. Smith on the effects which flow from the conduct of the miser and the spendthrift as they respect society in general. Among the fine disquisitions in that very superior, though not the most finished, performance, not one is more happy and satisfactory than this, which the present author has chosen to make the subject of humour and pleasantry. He says 'that it is on the expenditure and not parsimony of the class of land proprietors, that the production of national wealth depends.' We deny this *in toto*, in a country in which capital has not reached its maximum, and in which public works and beneficial enterprizes remain in which the savings of individuals may be embarked. On the system of parsimony, *more* wealth may be produced, but less cannot; the expenditure or the parsimony, however, needs necessarily affect only the description of wealth; and they more relate to public order than to the quantum of production, which may be equal, or nearly so, on both systems of conduct in the class in question.

Not only do the absurd positions of the author bespeak his want of knowledge, but the bugbears, which he conjures up in order to combat and to foil them, substantiate against him the same charge. As an instance, we may remark the pains which he takes to shew that circulating paper is no part of national wealth. Who ever maintained so extravagant a notion as the affirmative of this proposition? Within certain limits, paper facilitates the operations of commerce, and, by thus increasing its activity, is indirectly the cause of producing wealth. — Moreover, he tells us, some persons overlook

overlook the immense wealth which we derive from our soil, and even deny its existence:—we are total strangers to any such persons: but we suppose that they must be confined to the description of people mentioned by the author, who are usually more noisy than intelligent, we mean ale-house politicians. He who derives his information from the best source on these matters, namely the volumes of Dr. Smith, needs not to be taught by Mr. Spence that manufactures, in a state which is mistress of a large territory, are of inferior consideration to agriculture, and that *internal* enriches far more than *external* commerce; in that great writer, these matters are correctly stated, clearly proved, amply illustrated, and not confusedly thrown out and gratuitously asserted, as they are in these pages. No man, not excepting the economists, ever demonstrated more fully the superior value of the soil, or insisted more on the higher claims of agriculture, than Dr. Smith.—The anticipations of the author respecting the decline of our manufactures and commerce, in the event of a peace, are farther indications of the little proficiency which he has made in this science.

We pass over the extraordinary assertion that commerce is not necessary to the support and maintenance of our navy, and the mode of arguing by which that proposition is supported. Forgetting, or wilfully overlooking, Dr. Smith's account of the manner in which a nation is enriched by imports and exports, the author asserts that we shall gain by the extinction of our foreign commerce, because we export useful and durable articles, and import those which are perishing and pernicious.

Having taken a survey of Mr. Spence's attainments in political economy, let us view him as an adviser of measures which respect internal administration, and our foreign relations. We shall present our readers with a short specimen of the method by which this statesman removes difficulties, and renders every thing smooth:

‘When, in consequence of the caprice of one nation, or the envy of another, the export of our manufactures is materially lessened, we have but to lessen our imports proportionably, and to spend the money which we usually had consumed in the produce of other countries, in purchasing an additional quantity of the manufactures of our own. Thus, if the Americans persist in acting upon the non-importation law, which their pettish folly led them so hastily to pass, and in consequence, throw upon our hands the two or three millions’ worth of woollen cloths, &c. which they have been accustomed to buy of us, we have but to prohibit the importation of tobacco, and the other articles which we get of them, and we shall speedily see them upon their knees, requesting us to let things go on in their

old train. And the consumers in this country, who will then save the money they had before wasted in tobacco, have but to expend the sums so saved, in a new coat or two additional for each of them, and our manufactures will not be sensible of the change, nor have occasion to regret the substitution of a British, for an American, market.'

Imports are things which promote the comfort, gratify the taste, or feed the vanity of the home-consumer; and on one or another of these accounts he buys them, and labours to acquire the productions which supply the necessary funds. Will he guide his choice in the selection of what he buys by the nod of a statesman; or will he toil if these things are withdrawn, merely in order to prevent a deficit in the revenue? Where has this author studied human nature, and the course of human transactions? To him it is perfectly easy to convert the class of epicures into fops, and that of ragged tipplers into sober and decent labourers, or *vice versa*, according to the wishes of governors;—and this instantaneously, to answer the state purposes of the moment. The Privy Council, we suppose, have only to issue a proclamation to recommend, or parliament to enact a law to enforce, that the subject at home shall take all the woollens and hardware which we were wont to export, and it is immediately accomplished. If subjects were made of such stuff, then would government-offices be indeed "beds of roses," and Mr. Spence would not be without plausibility.—As to the Americans, we fear that they are not at present in quite so kneeling a humor as the author supposes.

Supposing that we are made converts to the new system of political economy,—that we undervalue Smith, and become followers of Spence,—we do not see where we are to find the consolation which this author promises us. He cannot deny the fact that our exports amount to fifty millions; he admits a fifth of this sum is profit, and that the revenue benefits by it to the amount of four millions; he is also aware that a number of hands would be thrown out of employ, and that the state is bound to provide for them, the expence of which we suppose could hardly amount to less than a million.—Here is, then, an additional sum of five millions to be raised annually; and how is this to be done? Let us take courage; the author is never at a loss; and difficulties, which would appal ordinary individuals, never even startle him. These five millions must be laid, he tells us, on the land. We have only to give up tea and wine, and spirits and sugar, all of which (except the last) are prejudicial to our health, and we shall still be gainers.—Perhaps we have been unable to satisfy our readers that

that this is an impracticable scheme: but in this case we are sure that none of them will dissent from us when we assert that it is any thing but consolatory. In the sacrifice itself, surely nothing of that kind can be found; and as to the additional impost which it is proposed to throw on the land, we leave it to the consideration of those who know better than we do in what degree the land is already burthened; let *them* say whether consolation can be derived from *this* part of the author's plan.

If we are obliged to continue the contest, and the loss of our commerce ensues, we are as far as Mr. Spence from thinking that this event will occasion our national downfall; and what other effects may result, it is not material here to inquire. That, though our "commerce perish," we are still capable of existing as a nation, and even as a powerful nation, may be deemed no matter of doubt: but if we be deprived of commerce we shall not be what we have been. We shall resemble an individual who has lost a precious limb, say his right arm. Or we shall be in the situation of a man who is deprived of a most valuable portion of his estate, of that on which his splendour, his hospitality, and his charities depended: he might indeed still reside in the family mansion, but the most spacious apartments must be shut up; his festivities and joyous galas would be rare; a great part of his retinue must be dismissed, his equipage contracted, his park ploughed, and his style of living totally changed.

We are very certain that the parties immediately interested will deem Mr. Spence's consolations an insult, and that men of intelligence will regard them as an affront to their understanding; while the event will abundantly expose their futility. We have never met with any tract that engaged even temporary attention from the public, which so little deserved it. The author does not conceal his errors under a mass of learning, nor dim the senses by the blaze of his eloquence, but they appear to the experienced eye in all their naked deformity: nor is he master of those arts by which the fancy is amused, and reason lulled asleep; he does not practice his impostures by the aids of ingenious sophistry and logical dexterity, but the impression which he has made is resolvable to the influence which confident declarations and bold assertions will ever have on the ignorant and the indolent. If he be not, as we have considered him, a mere sciolist, whose presumption is equal to his insufficiency, on what principle does he expect that his wild chimeras will be favourably received?—Does he suppose that the delirium of the last summer has not yet subsided; and that one delusion has given the
people

people a relish for others, and has indisposed them to truth and matter of fact? Those who lately trembled for the safety of our national church, who lost sight of Bonaparte in their fears of the Pope, who were appalled by the dangers of extended toleration, who exulted in the triumphs of bigotry, and who were persuaded to regard strength and permanence as resulting from a dis-union which a stigmatizing exclusion feeds and inflames,—such persons may resort to Mr. Spence for comfort, and adopt as an article of their political faith, that ‘Britain is independent of commerce.’

For aught that we know, Mr. Spence may by his present labours attract the notice, and engage the countenance, of some great men in this kingdom: but of this we are certain, that we can point to one great man out of it, who will feel infinitely beholden to him if he succeeds in persuading his countrymen no longer to be ‘sticklers for the importance of commerce,’—in making them believe that ‘it does not contribute sixpence to the national wealth,’—and in inducing them to deem it of small importance ‘whether their imports and exports increase or diminish.’ We have too high an opinion of that personage’s discernment of all that can assist his views, not to be fully persuaded that he would deem even a *cordon* of the legion of honor well bestowed on the man who would procure the leading doctrines of this pamphlet to be universally received, and to become operative, in Great Britain.

Since the preceding article was written, we have seen a 3d. edition of Mr. Spence’s pamphlet, to which the following advertisement is prefixed:

‘Owing to the haste with which this work was originally written, under the idea that the state of things which seemed to call for it would probably be of no long duration, a few slight inaccuracies escaped observation; and the chain of reasoning, in some places, is not so strong as it might be. These defects I have endeavoured to remedy in the present edition. Some additional notes, also, are added, applicable to existing circumstances; and in particular, the abundant resources, which offer themselves for the employment of those manufacturers who may be deprived of occupation by the loss of our export trade, are pointed out more distinctly than before.’

It has happened to be out of our power to compare the edition which we used with this new impression; and under these circumstances we can only convey to our readers the preceding notification, which justice to Mr. Spence seems to require us to communicate.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JANUARY, 1808.

MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, &c.

Art. 12. *A System of Chemistry.* By Thomas Thomson, M.D. F.R.S. Ed. 3d Edition. 5 vols. 8vo. 3l. Boards. Edinburgh, Bell and Bradfute; London, Murray. 1807.

It is not our general custom to notice new editions, but in the present instance we are induced to deviate from our plan, on account of the importance of the work, and of the great quantity of valuable matter which has been added to it. The author informs us, in his preface, that 'more than one half of the whole has been written anew, and important additions and alterations have been introduced into almost every chapter. Several chemical departments, omitted altogether in the former editions for want of a sufficient number of facts, have for the first time found a place in this. So numerous, indeed, are these additions, that the work has swelled out to an additional volume.' We cannot advert to all the new matter, nor to all the changes that have taken place in the arrangement of the old materials; and we shall only have it in our power to announce a few of the most important of them.

The section on carbon has undergone a considerable alteration; the late experiments, of both the French and English chemists, have given us new views on this subject, and have tended to throw a degree of doubt on the opinion, which was before thought to be firmly established, of the difference between carbon and charcoal. We have likewise, in the same section, considerable new matter on the subject of the combinations of charcoal and hydrogen, under the form of the different carbureted hydrogenous gases; and the inflammable gas from pit coal, which has lately attracted so much attention, the olefient gas, and the carbonic oxid, are all described with that clearness and perspicuity, which we have before had occasion so much to commend in Dr. Thomson's writings. In the chapter which treats on the metallic bodies, we have an account of the new metals that have been extracted from crude platina, an abstract of Mr. Hatchett's experiments on coins, and a considerable alteration in the account of the carburets of iron.

On the subject of caloric; the chapter has undergone a great change; some parts of the old edition are omitted, and Dr. T. has introduced an excellent account of Mr. Leslie's curious experiments on the escape of heat from surfaces. We have likewise some additional experiments on the increased bulk of water, as it approaches the freezing point; and we are happy to observe that the author has had the discretion to discard his speculation respecting the connection between the specific heat of bodies and their conducting power.—The second division of the work, which contains a statement of the earths, the oxides, the acids, and the salts, has received many additions; so that scarcely a section is free from change, and some are entirely new. The alterations in the third book, on
affinity

affinity, are still more important; the account of homogeneous affinity, which appeared in the former edition, is omitted, and we have in its place a long chapter on gases. It is divided into five sections; on the constitution of gases, their mixture, and the combination of gases with gases, liquids, and solids. We have also another new chapter on liquids, relating first to their constitution, secondly to their action on each other, and thirdly to their combination with solids; and we find a fourth chapter on solids, in which are considered the subjects of cohesion, crystallization, and the combination of solids with each other. A fifth chapter also appears to be almost entirely new, containing four sections, on combination, decomposition, precipitation, and volatilization.

The account of the atmosphere, of meteorology, and of mineral waters is not much altered: but the mineralogical part is throughout new-modelled, and greatly improved, in consequence of the author having adopted the Wernerean arrangement. The animal and vegetable substances occupy the fifth volume, which is even more bulky than any of the preceding four, and which, like them, contains a great variety of entirely new matter. The book on affinity, in which the general doctrines of chemistry are particularly discussed, is almost wholly new; and the same is the case with the mineralogical part. In the remainder of the work, as far as we have been able to judge, the author has spared no pains in collecting new information from every quarter, and seems, in all instances, to have kept pace with the recent improvements.—As a valuable body of facts, stated with singular clearness, the performance stands unrivalled: but, as a system of chemical knowledge, all the objections that we formerly urged against it still remain in their full force.

Art. 13. A Copy of the Answer to the Queries of the London College of Surgeons, and of a Letter to the College of Physicians, respecting the Experiment of the Cow Pox. By John Birch, Surgeon extraordinary to the Prince of Wales, &c. 8vo. 3s. Harris. 1807.

The College of Surgeons, some time ago, addressed to their members, in different parts of the kingdom, a set of queries on the subject of vaccination; and Mr. Birch, who has formerly appeared before us as one of the most determined opposers of the practice,* has deemed it necessary to publish the answers which he drew up on this occasion. He observes in his preface that, ‘In the answers to the queries issued by the London College of Surgeons, they have been informed of 56 cases of failure, of 66 of consequent eruption, of 24 of bad arms, and of 3 of death.’ He farther states that, out of more than 1100 persons to whom queries were sent, only 426 have returned answers; and he infers that, if the whole had complied with the request of the College, the number of unfavorable replies must necessarily have been much greater.—We are, however, disposed to draw a different inference; we conceive it highly probable, and it corresponds with our observation, that those practitioners are the most disposed to make the result of their practice known, who have met with any occurrences that

* See Rev. vol. lii. N. S. p. 104.

can be esteemed uncommon or singular. We can assure our readers that the above statement of the 56 failures, the 66 eruptions, &c. makes not the smallest impression on us; we have already some hundreds of failures, eruptions, &c. &c. in the writings of Dr. Rowley; and yet we are so obstinate as still to believe in the efficacy of the cow-pox. Our faith is not more affected by the declaration of Mr. Birch that many cases of failure have fallen under his own knowledge, and that he has heard of others in different parts of the country; such general assertions always stand for cyphers in medical arithmetic.

Mr. B. thinks that the practice of vaccination is declining in London, and he ascribes such decline to the following causes. 1st. the two vaccine societies disagree in their opinion on some essential points; one society, for instance, supposes that there are two sorts of cow-pox, a genuine and a spurious kind; the other, that there is only one sort. It always has been and always will be the case, that medical men will differ on such topics: but this particular circumstance is entirely a dispute about words, and does not, in the slightest degree, affect any point of practice.—The 2d. cause is the supposed origin of the disease;—and the third, the uncertainty of the method of ensuring success in the progress of inoculation. As to the 2d cause, it is more a matter of fancy than of argument: if persons think that there is any thing gratifying in the virus of the small-pox, or in the appearance of a patient labouring under that disease, we must leave them to indulge their own tastes. The circumstance ought, no doubt, to stimulate us to use our best endeavours to arrive at certainty on the controverted points, but we do not see how it can afford any argument against the practice in general.

Mr. Birch afterward informs his readers that he is compelled to declare that he sees new and anomalous eruptions following the disease. Let him accurately describe these eruptions, and shew how they differ from those that have been previously known, and the public will give him credit for wishing to throw light on an important and interesting object of discussion. While, on the contrary, he satisfies himself with these general charges, he can be regarded, on the most favorable construction, in no other light than that of a man who has taken a part in a controversy, the merits of which he does not fully comprehend, or at least does not adequately embrace.

Art. 14. Reports of the State of Vaccination, at the Sheffield General Infirmary. By Robert Earnest, House Surgeon. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co. 1807.

Although this pamphlet does not add materially to our knowledge on the subject of vaccination, yet, as affording the result of an extensive practice, and as the production of a man who appears to possess a candid and inquiring turn of mind, it is not unworthy of our attention. Mr. Earnest, in his public capacity of house surgeon to the Sheffield Infirmary, has had an opportunity of inoculating 'nearly 5000 persons, of whom not a single individual has been lost.'

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He gives an interesting account of a child, apparently healthy, who was inoculated with what seemed to be perfect matter, and yet, instead of the proper disease being produced, it had a violent erythematous inflammation brought on the arm, succeeded by an ichorous discharge from the punctured part. The symptoms were, after some time, subdued, and the child afterward received the cow-pox without any disagreeable consequences.—A case is also mentioned in which the cow pox and measles existed at the same time; ‘the two diseases,’ the author says, ‘ran on together, and the child did well.’

We have afterward a full account of four cases of small-pox, which were supposed to be subsequent to vaccination, and which are said to have excited in Sheffield a considerable prejudice against the cow-pox. In the first two cases, the operations were performed at the commencement of the author's practice; and as he made no minutes respecting them, he is unable to state exactly what was the result of the inoculation. The subsequent disease appears to have been small-pox, both from its symptoms and from the way in which it was produced: but its duration was shorter than the usual period, and it seemed to have been modified by the preceding disease, whatever may have been its real nature. The 3d and 4th cases afford every reason for supposing that the small-pox infection was received into the constitution, before the vaccination had taken its due effect.—Mr. Earnest concludes with this declaration: ‘Upon the whole, after frequently *retrospecting* the above remarks and observations on the disease in question, I cannot, for a single moment, hesitate to say that I feel a firm conviction that perfect vaccination is a permanent preventive of the small-pox; that the discovery of it has been one of the most valuable that has ever been made in the healing art; and that it will ultimately prove one of the greatest blessings to mankind in general, and immortalize the name of Jenner.’

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 15. *Letters upon the Establishment of the Volunteer Corps and domestic military Arrangement of Great Britain.* By James Ferguson, Esq Advocate, Major 1st Battallion 2d. Regiment A.V.I. 8vo. pp. 118. 3s. Bell and Bradfute, Edinburgh; Murray, London.

Mr. Ferguson's views in publishing these letters appear to have been patriotic, many of his remarks are well founded, and several of his suggestions are judicious: but, like other pamphleteers who have written on the subject, and like all speakers in the debates that have hitherto taken place respecting it in the House of Commons, he does not go beyond the alphabet of military organization and national defence. He does not once speak of the many and natural advantages which this country, differently circumstanced in various respects from all the other countries of Europe, affords for the purposes of defence; and of which, under officers even moderately skilful and intelligent, we might successfully avail ourselves against an invading enemy with almost any description of troops. We are also inclined to think that he even takes a microscopic prospect of

our danger, for in this inclosed country disposition is of much more consequence than numbers ; and he seems to have overlooked the very wide difference between the landing of a small army in this island for the purposes of annoyance, partial destruction, or temporary alarm, and that of a large and numerous force, designed to effect actual subjugation.

Were the volunteers in each county to be kept together ten days or a fortnight, twice in the year, and (as Mr. F. suggests) with the militia of the same county to be embodied with a certain proportion of the regulars both infantry and cavalry, and during that time to be taught to go through their manœuvres and evolutions with them, to march, encamp, and occupy positions, they would soon be much better prepared for co-operating effectually with the regular army in the hour of danger and attack, than they ever can be by the present system. This method of preparing them for the purposes of national defence would also render them emulous of equalling the militia, and even the regulars, and would operate as a permanent stimulus, which is certainly much to be desired. They ought not, however, to be taught any movements but such as it may be necessary for them to practise in the face of an enemy ; for, when a system of evolutions is rendered unnecessarily multiform and complex, it must lead to confusion and disorder in the time of action.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 16. *The Botanist's Guide through the Counties of Northumberland and Durham.* To which is added a Catalogue of English Names. Vol. II. 8vo. pp 150. 3s. Longman and Co. 1807.

In the 50th volume of our New Series, (p. 431.) we noticed the first part of this provincial Flora. Messrs. Wynch and Thornhill, the surviving editors, have, in the prosecution of their task, been favoured with a list of phænogamous plants, indigenous to the county of Durham, by the Rev. J. Symmons :—Mr. F. Scott has also communicated to them the result of his botanical researches in the neighbourhood of Hexham :—Mr. R. Wilson, of Medomsley, has enabled them to ascertain many of the Fungi, by means of accurate drawings :—and the Rev. J. Harriman has supplied them with some important and critical observations on the numerous tribe of Lichens.—The latter are arranged agreeably to the method of Acharius, and the Fuci according to Turner's Synopsis : but the remaining genera are classed conformably to the third edition of Withering's British Flora.

Lecidea Testacea is inserted, but with the following qualification : 'The Description of Acharius, and Opinion of the Rev. Mr. Borrer, has [have] induced us to insert this rare Plant in our Catalogue : though we must acknowledge that Mr. Turner, whose authority, in this Class, is very great, will not allow it to be Lichen Saxifraga of Dr. Smith, in the Linnean Transactions, which is a Synonym of Acharius.'

The number of species now particularized amounts to 1835, and the list is, on the whole, highly creditable to the diligence of the compilers. Should a second edition, however, be required, we recommend

mend a more careful revival of the press.—Prefixed to the present volume is a tolerably copious supplement to the first, including, among other rare plants, *Elymus Europæus*, *Galium Tricorne*, *Sium Anomum*, *Rubus Corylifolius*, *Thymus Calamintha*, *Ophrys Apifera*, &c.

HISTORY and ANTIQUITIES.

Art. 17. *The Antiquarian and Topographical Cabinet*, containing a Series of elegant Views of the most interesting Objects of Curiosity in Great Britain. Accompanied with Letter Press Descriptions. Vol. I. 12mo. 15s. Boards, large paper 1l. 4s. Clarke. 1807.

Of this elegant little work, the 1st. volume of which ‘contains fifty very highly finished views of some of the most interesting scenery in the kingdom,’ the professed object is to ‘preserve the most venerable remains of antiquity which time is incessantly whittling away by nearly imperceptible atoms:’ but it is not confined to this point, since ‘subjects of a miscellaneous nature are occasionally introduced,’ which render it still more pleasing.

Respecting the selection of the subjects contained in this volume, and the style of the Drawing and Engravings, we find ourselves disposed to speak in terms of high commendation; and although the scale on which they are given is small, the execution is unusually neat. The descriptions are concise, comprehensive, and appropriate: but in this department of the work we would recommend that dates of Buildings, or even of parts of them, when they can be obtained or even conjectured, and also their dimensions, should be invariably affixed. In the latter part of the volume, the views relating to the city of Worcester are given in a regular series; a method which in most cases would be very desirable: but the authors seemed aware of the impossibility of uniformly attending to it, and therefore have not numbered the pages, so that subscribers may arrange the subjects according to their own taste, without disfiguring the work.

Art. 18. *The Beauties of England and Wales; or Delineations topographical, historical, and descriptive of each County, embellished with Engravings.* By John Britton, and Edward Wedlake Brayley. 8vo. Vol. IV. pp. 560. 18s. Vol. V. pp. 736 1l. 5s. Vol. VI. pp. 599. 1l. 2s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood, &c.

On the former volumes of this publication, we bestowed considerable commendation; (see M.R. Vol. 40. N.S. 390. and Vol. 42. p. 210.) and in examining the merits of those before us, we find them in several respects improving in our good opinion. The exertions of the authors seem to have been unremitted; and the result has been the continuation of a performance which reflects credit on their abilities, and may be of essential utility to the public.

The work contains a comprehensive history of each county, details of its Size, Population, Aspect, Soils, State of Agriculture, Produce, Mines, Minerals and Rivers, an historical and descriptive view of its Towns, Cathedrals, Churches, and other Public Buildings: Trade, Commerce, Manufactures, Villages, Seats, Castles, Antiquities, Ruins, Manors, Bridges, charitable Establishments, Biographical

cal notices of eminent natives, &c. and also an account of the several Works, Maps, Plans, &c. that have been published relative to the places described. The whole is embellished with a series of engravings, generally (but with a few exceptions) of much merit; making altogether what may be justly called a Library of British Topography.

When this compilation was first projected, it seems to have been intended only to give engravings of the most *beautiful* and interesting scenery, with historical accounts descriptive of the places represented, and therefore was intitled *The Beauties of England and Wales*: but, through the increasing exertions of the authors, and the patronage of the Public, it has ascended in the scale of literature, and at present deserves a more general title. In order to obtain the requisite information on the various topics which the work embraces, the editors have had recourse to all the former writers who have treated on them; have consulted old manuscripts, and opened a correspondence with resident individuals; and also have added to these sources personal research, one of them having actually visited the places described, and thus enabled himself to correct any errors in the accounts otherwise procured.

Volume IV. contains the History and Description of Devonshire, Dorsetshire, and the Isle of Portland, with twenty Engravings: volume V. the counties of Durham, Essex, and Gloucester, with 36 Engravings: volume VI. Hampshire, the Isle of Wight, and Herefordshire, with 32 Engravings. The several subjects are well digested, the arrangement is natural, and the language is appropriate. The popularity which, we understand, the work has acquired, is the best criterion of the sense which the public entertain of its merits; we coincide with them in their decision, and congratulate them on the opportunity of gaining so much information with so little trouble.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 19. *A Letter on the Nature, Extent, and Management, of Poor Rates in Scotland*: with a Review of the Controversy respecting the Abolition of Poor Laws. 8vo. pp. 38. 1s 6d. Harding. 1807.

We opened this tract with the expectation of deriving from it information on a subject which, in itself considered, is of the highest interest, but which late discussions have served still farther to enhance. What was our disappointment, on finding page after page offer nothing to the eye but loose desultory observations on abstract questions, about which the author appears to be very ill qualified to treat!

A puerile declamation against the doctrine of expediency introduces the writer's attacks on Mr. Malthus: but the flippancy which these displays are only equalled by the shallowness and ignorance on which they are bottomed. In the conceptions of the author, the notion that the poor rates are inexpedient and impolitic is pregnant with mischief. He is in great apprehension lest it should gain ground; and that this may be the case, he says, 'is to be feared from the general circulation of

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the Essay on Population by Mr. Malthus, which has received an additional degree of notoriety from its principles having been adopted and applauded by Mr. Whitbread, in his speech upon the Poor Laws lately delivered in the House of Commons *.

Mr. Malthus's work had been perused by every man of superior intelligence, long before the mention of it made by Mr. Whitbread; and it is not a little curious that the honourable member did not refer to it as adopting and applauding it, but in order to refute it. The testimony, it is true, which he bore to its general merits, was such as might have been expected from an opponent equally candid and intelligent with himself: but all the leading features of his plans are at variance with the principles of Mr. Malthus; and they also clash with several of the received doctrines of political economy, as laid down by other writers, which it was not within the scope of Mr. Malthus's work particularly to consider. On these grounds, though yielding to none in our respect for the abilities, integrity, and patriotism of Mr. W., we have already professed our dissent from his plans, and ventured earnestly to deprecate their adoption.

In the thirty-eight pages of which this tract consists, three or four, that are pertinent to the subject, will gratify readers who prefer facts to the effusions of superficial dogmatism; and sorry are we to say that the pamphlet itself supplies the means of making the contrast. The author promises a continuance of his labours on the present subject: if he will abandon theory, and impart to us the facts which his title-page promises, we shall gladly attend to him, and cheerfully pay him the tribute to which he may intitle himself.

Art. 20. Peace without Dishonour, War without Hope. An Argument against War with Great Britain, recently published at Boston. By an American Farmer. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Butterworth.

Had we been left to judge concerning the author of this pamphlet from its internal complexion, we should have conjectured that he was a lawyer rather than a farmer, and a subject of Great Britain rather than an American citizen. It contains a strenuous defence of our conduct in the affair of the Chesapeake Frigate, and is as completely Anti-American and Anti-Gallican as if it had been composed by a servant of our own Government. We should be happy to hear that the sentiments here advanced were popular in the United States: but we cannot help suspecting that this American farmer employs arguments which are more current on the eastern than on the western side of the Atlantic.

Though peace is, beyond all controversy, the interest of both countries, and though war presents little hope to either, we have much to apprehend from the operation of national pride and irritated feelings; which rarely listen to calm reason, or take the road of sound discretion. In a maritime contest, America can flatter herself with no prospect of success against Great Britain, but must materially suffer by having her intercourse with this country

* On Thursday, 19th February, 1807.

suspended,

suspended, and her commerce with the East destroyed. On the other hand, she may console herself with the inconveniences which *our* commerce and colonies must sustain, and may threaten us with the invasion of Canada and Nova Scotia. The boasted revenue of America is inadequate to the expence of creating a navy; and if she enters on a war, she must, as this writer intimates, have recourse to the European expedients of *loans and taxes*, which will not be much relished by the inhabitants of the United States. According to this *roi disant* American Farmer, the odious system of Excise would produce only 750,000 dollars; and in case of a war, the Americans must calculate on 20,000,000 dollars being annually raised by direct taxes on *land and slaves*. He calls the threatened contest *a war for British deserters*; and he intimates that, at its conclusion, supposing it to last five years, a more heavy debt would be contracted than was felt at the end of the *revolutionary war*. He presumes to reason on the ground that a war with America is not unpopular in England, and that our manufacturers are not apprehensive from the event: but we conjecture that such an argument would not be used on the other side of the water; and we suspect something counterfeit in the whole of this publication.

Art. 21. *The State of Great Britain abroad and at home, in the eventful Year 1808*; by an Englishman of no Party. 8vo. pp. 42. 2s. Tipper.

Nothing is more easily penned than loose general declamation, but nothing is more vapid and unprofitable. Within the limits of a few pages, the present author glances at a variety of interesting subjects, without satisfactorily discussing any; so that it would be difficult to collect from him 'the state of Great Britain' either abroad or at home. On the seizure of the Danish Fleet, he merely observes that *necessitas non habet leges*; and in adverting to our domestic situation, he seriously deplores, as an Englishman of any party may do, the prevalence of prostitution and other immoralities.

Art. 22. *The Crisis. By the Author of Plain Facts; or a Review of the Conduct of the late Ministers.* Third Edition. 8vo. pp. 115. 3s. J.J. Stockdale. 1807.

This author assures the good people of England that they have had a very narrow escape from utter ruin, and that the dismissal of the late administration has alone prevented it:—nothing was right, he says, which they did:—but he congratulates us on the change, and invites us to place unlimited confidence in the men who now preside at the helm, who will retrieve our fallen fortunes, and indeed have already done so.—Not only do the leaders of the present opposition fare hardly before this writer's tribunal, but the principal powers of the continent are equally arraigned, and are not treated with more ceremony. The councils of this country are stated to have been infallible, except during the short period of the rule of the ex-ministers; and the ill consequences which have happened have been owing to the faults of our late allies, but to England no error or miscalculation is imputable. He particularly inveighs against the jealousies and antipathies which divide the Austrians and Russians;

but however well deserved may be this censure, it is passed with a very ill grace by the devoted admirer of men, who came into power on the ground of maintaining and perpetuating disunion between their fellow subjects. Is it for those who so recently set one portion of the king's subjects to revile and stigmatize an immense mass of their fellow subjects, to inveigh against independent states for not making a common cause where a common interest exists? Most of these pages seem exercises in declamation:—while the late ministers are in the view of the writer, all the terms which express contempt are employed; and to these he adds even execration when Bonaparte presents himself to his mind: but the language of panegyric is exhausted on the members of the present cabinet. When he reprobates certain deeds of Bonaparte, his inflated verbiage labours in vain to go beyond the real guilt: but what will the reader think of the man who flatly denies that any thing great or eminent belongs to that extraordinary personage? This, it appears, is more a libel on the ruling powers of the world than on the French chief. Twelve years have scarcely expired since Bonaparte was as little known to Europe as his present detractor: but since that time he has risen to be the first potentate in the universe. If it really served the state, or reflected honour on the nation, to heap vulgar and indiscriminate abuse on this powerful chief, still the author might have spared himself the trouble, since he cannot in this respect surpass a certain description of the daily prints. One charge, however, is here advanced against the French ruler which we have not hitherto seen preferred:—he is accused of ‘mutilating the beauty and shaking even the constitution of nature.’

The writer is a warm admirer of what he calls ‘the well concerted expedition against the Danes, which had so *brilliant* a termination,’ and which he describes ‘as no less admirable in its execution than in its conception.’ ‘The whole conduct and execution of this important affair (he adds) have been truly illustrative of the *virtues* of the British character.’ We in some sort agree with him, when he says that ‘it has evinced a determination to depart from those *creeping maxims*, and to burst asunder *those oppressive chains*, by which our best energies have for so long a time been shackled.’ He seems to have anticipated the morality which a young professor is said very recently to have inculcated in an august assembly: but our prejudices are too inveterate to profit by the principles of this extraordinary lecture. Conceiving ‘those *creeping maxims*’ to mean the rules of justice, and ‘those *oppressive chains*’ to be no others than the laws of morality, in spite of the author’s anathemas, we cannot avoid regarding this ‘brilliant’ achievement with feelings of shame and humiliation.

Art. 23. *A Letter to Samuel Whitbread, Esq. M.P.* on the Subject of two Bills now (lately) pending in Parliament. By Robert Deverell, Esq. Late one of the Representatives for the Borough of Saltash. 8vo. pp. 30. 1s. 6d. Clarke. 1807.

Though the avowal of having defended the slave trade, and the doubts thrown out by this writer as to the expediency of teaching the

the poor to read and write, cannot be supposed much to recommend him to us, yet we own that his modest and dispassionate manner of expressing his sentiments has occasioned the perusal of his pamphlet to be in no way disagreeable. As to the slave trade, peace be to its manes! We hope that the new morality lately introduced is not inculcated with any view of paving the way for reviving that horrible traffic.—If we do not approve of any compulsory method for instructing the children of the poor in reading and writing, and if we strenuously protest against the expediency and justice of imposing any burthens on the community for this purpose, we highly applaud the object; and we conceive that the benevolent and public spirited cannot be better employed than in encouraging and promoting it. A noble Admiral is here quoted as saying that formerly, when sailors were more illiterate, he had greater confidence in them, and they were more pious: but this noble person could not add that they were more brave, for never did they stand higher in this respect than at the very time when the gallant commander complains of their acquirements. The church of Rome has been charged with maintaining that ignorance is the parent of devotion, and the noble Admiral in question seems to agree with it in that sentiment.

Some years ago, it seems, a plan similar to that which was lately proposed by Mr. Whitbread, in regard to the savings of the poor, had occurred to this writer, the detail of which is here given. We much commend these designs, as far as they tend to render the poor provident: but we are not of opinion that, even in this respect, legislative interference can be of any benefit. Highly erroneous as we deem the present system of poor-laws to be, we cannot help regarding it as a most fortunate circumstance, that the government has no concern in its administration; and we are convinced that any alteration in this respect would only occasion the burthens of the public to be increased, and the poor to be worse provided. Improvements in the condition of the poor are only to be effected by the exertions of private associations, and of private individuals; the legislature cannot any otherwise assist in them than by regulations and provisions which are very general.

SOUTH AMERICA.

Art 24. *Buenos Ayres. Truth and Reason, versus Calumny and Folly:* in which the leading Circumstances of General White-locke's Conduct in South America are explained. With an Appendix, in Answer to an expensive Publication of last Week, relating every Personality therein advanced. 2vo: 2s. Kerby and Bowdery.

In order to give this pamphlet any weight or authority, the public should know that it comes from a man who was personally acquainted with the events which he discusses, and that he was professionally qualified to speak on such a subject. On both these points, however, the writer avows his own insufficiency; for he states that his remarks 'are *unauthentic*, and have nothing to support them farther than the frequent opportunities of inquiries among

those who were present;' and he acknowledges that he is not a military man. Of this last fact, every person in any degree conversant with military affairs would be fully sensible after having perused the pamphlet, without the above specific information of it. Indeed, the character of the whole tract is such as might be expected from the circumstances under which it is produced: it is not written either with ability in a professional point of view, nor even with correctness as a composition: it is evidently designed for a particular purpose, and is calculated to disguise instead of to elicit truth: but it will tend rather to injure than to serve the cause which it espouses.

The Appendix refers to a work noticed in page 63 of this Review, but it does not explain any one point of consequence, and scarcely merits notice.

POETRY.

Art. 25. *The Henriade of Mr. de Voltaire.* Translated by Daniel French, Esq. 8vo. pp. 336. 6s. Boards. Sancho.

The disappearance of all former translations of Voltaire's poem, which possibly induced Mr. French to present the public with a new version, should, in our judgment, have been sufficient to convince him that no such work was necessary; yet we are at a loss to assign any other motive which urged him to the undertaking. His motto, extracted from the Abbé de Lille's *Poème sur l'Imagination*, is a pointed censure on the subject of the *Henriade*; in p. 24, he observes, in a note, that 'it would be tedious and unprofitable to enumerate all the faults which the critics find in it;' and though, in this last passage, he does take occasion to pay some high compliments to his original author, whom he styles 'a blazing wonder,' and whose poem he designates as 'a sweet garden,' he admits that a knowledge of the French is necessary for a full enjoyment of 'the sweet fruit it bears;' which seems to imply that its beauties are incapable of transfusion into another language.

If this version did not originate in an enthusiastic admiration of the author of the poem, still less can it be attributed to a wish to investigate the difficulties that occur in the most important era of French history, or to throw new light on the interesting facts with which it abounds. The notes, with the single exception, we believe, of that from which we have copied the preceding eulogy, are taken from the common French editions of the poem; and Voltaire's masterly sketch of the reign of Henry the fourth and the three preceding reigns is subjoined in English, without one additional fact, annotation, or reflection, from the translator.

Though, however, we cannot pretend to account for Mr. French's publication, we are by no means disposed to complain of it; nor ashamed to confess the pleasure with which we always contemplate the life and character of one of the greatest and best of men, as well as the mild, beneficent, and tolerant maxims of government which are taught by his eventful reign. We think, also, that the present translation is very commendably executed. It is at once free and faithful; the language is unaffected; and the versification, though sometimes weak and careless, is almost throughout easy and flowing

flowing. We discover in it, indeed, rather too much of the "brave neglect;" and we are satisfied that the grammatical faults, which may be sometimes detected, are the result not of ignorance but of haste. In employing the French proper names, occasional liberties are taken, by shifting and misplacing the accents; and it appears peculiarly injudicious to alter the name of so conspicuous a character as Mayenne, who is constantly called *Mayne*. The errors in the verse are not numerous: but surely *Aumale* and *all*, *calmed* and *armed*, *swoln* and *flown*, are wholly inadmissible as rhymes.

We transcribe the account of Henry in the hour of victory, after the battle of Ivry, as a fair specimen of the translator's verse:

' With rage his disappointed troops survey,
Snatched from their swords, the slaughter of the day.
Silent the miserable captives bend,
And at the conqueror's feet their doom attend.
In every eye despair, shame, horror spoke,
And tears and sobs his clemency invoke.
Compassion touched heroic Bourbon's breast,
While mildly thus the vanquished he address:
Arise! and profit of the choice I give,
Return to Mayne, or my companions live!
To serve in bondage to my foes agree.
To groan with them, or triumph under me.
These words, which from a king and conqueror came,
Covered with glory in the field of fame,
Amazed, revived th' abandoned to despair:
Sudden the vanquished in the conquest share;
Their eyes enlightened all his virtues viewed,
They owned their error, joyed to be subdued;
Proud of their fate, and eager where he leads
To expiate in his cause their past misdeeds.'

Mr. F. states in his dedication that he had begun to translate Voltaire's dissertation on the principal epic poems that have appeared in Europe, but that his hand was stopped by the degrading criticism there passed on our 'divine Milton,' with which he could not persuade himself to sully our language.

AGRICULTURE, &c.

Art. 26. *The Forest Pruner; or the Timber Owner's Assistant: being a Treatise on the training or Management of British Timber Trees; whether intended for Use, Ornament, or Shelter: including an Explanation of the Causes of their general Diseases and Defects, with the Means of Prevention, and Remedies where practicable:—also an Examination of the Properties of English Fir Timber; with Remarks on the Defect of the old, and the Outlines of a new, System for the Management of Oak Woods. With eight explanatory Plates. By William Pontey, Nurseryman and Ornamental Gardener; Author of the Profitable Planter; and Planter and Forest Pruner to the late and present Duke of Bedford.* 8vo. pp. 270. 12s. Boards. White.

Compression is not the boast of modern authors: but subjects which might be discussed in a moderate sized pamphlet are dilated so

as to fill a considerable book. Professional men in particular are not satisfied unless they produce a handsome volume; and they think that their science does not appear with sufficient "pomp and circumstance," unless it issues with a sort of magnificence from the press. Mr. Pontey appears to have imbibed this prevailing idea, and has therefore spun out his theme to an unnecessary length. We by no means intimate that he is ignorant of the subjects which he professes to treat: but he is too diffuse and rambling; and more solicitous of introducing a quaint conceit, or a forced quotation, than of arranging and condensing his matter for practical uses. Seldom, indeed, have we met with a treatise more wire drawn, and less methodized. The *curl* in potatoes is called 'the pestilence that walketh in darkness;' and we are informed, in the same strain of pomposity, that this malady, to which the potatoe was for some years subject, has been 'subdued by that *Invisible Power* which "rides in the whirlwind and directs the storm"! We are tempted to give one other and longer instance of Mr. P's declamatory and verbose style, which is so ill adapted to a scientific work:

'If the reader can for a moment conceive to himself, a case extremely common; it is that of a venerable Oak, *once the pride*, now, apparently, the patriarch of the lawn; its branches decay, one after another; it droops, as it were, not under the weight of age, but its numerous infirmities:—a little longer, and its ample head, so long the subject of admiration, shall please no more.—Rottenness has seized upon its vitals, and sink it must.—The whole life of a man, devoted to the purpose, could not rear its fellow; the age of an ephemeron so devoted, in proper seasons, might have averted its fate.—Surely then no reader, who has eyes to see, or taste to appreciate the value of such objects, will grudge the time spent in investigating a cause, which oft "despoils the Oak of half its numbered years."

'A tree, past its vigour, may be aptly enough compared to a poor man; his income is scanty, and therefore, there is a necessity for hushandling every penny; it is indeed surprising, what a decent appearance many such make, by practising the most rigid economy; but, to do that, every thing must be systematic; he dares not spend an extra shilling upon any one object; as well knowing another would want it; and just such is the case with our tree.'

More than half of the volume is consumed in desultory remarks on Knottiness, Rottenness, Decayed tops, Short stems, Shaken timber, and Ivy-bound trees, before we arrive at the part devoted to *Pruning*. Here we are informed that 'every tree *with a clean stem*, from four feet and upwards in length, is completely a *trained one*;—as unassisted nature forms none of the sort:' but few readers, who have seen forests, will admit this doctrine; or will be silenced by Mr. Pontey's question 'when and where they have seen trees, absolutely in a state of nature' It will be sufficient to answer that, in all wild districts, trees with clean stems may be found where no pruner has exercised his skill, and where the effect has been produced only by the operations of nature. What a number of beautifully straight oaks, with clean stems twenty feet high, are even now to be

be found in the New Forest; and how many were once there which are now cut down? If it be true that pruning tends to improve the form and to increase the size of forest trees, it ought to be recommended: but we think that great judgment is requisite in the operation; and that without skill it is likely to do more harm than good.

The author's remarks on Plantations, on their shelter and thinning, and on ornamental trees, demand from us but little notice. For pruning on a large scale, Mr. P. prefers the saw for taking off side branches, and endeavours to remove the common prejudice against this handy tool.—In the section on Oak timber woods, he naturally adverts to the importance of our *Wooden walls*, and warmly recommends that the plantation and management of oak trees should be conducted on the most improved system.—We think that his assertion respecting the possibility of growing English Fir timber, of equal quality with foreign Fir, will be questioned: but his high commendation of the Larch will not be pronounced extravagant; nor will his laugh at the supposed merits of Mr. Forsyth's composition, and on the credulity of John Bull in this instance, be regarded as out of place.

Art. 27. *The Farmer's Daily Journal, and Complete Accountant*, from Michaelmas to Michaelmas, containing 1. an Account of the State of the Farm, with the gross Amount of the Crop in hand; the gross Amount of the Stock and Implements. 2. Ruled Pages for every Week in the Year, in which an Account is proposed to be kept of every Day's Labour of Horses, and Labourers and Servants employed on a Farm, and the Lands and Work on which they are employed. 3. Blank Leaves for occasional Memorandums and Remarks, at the End of each Month; and a general Statement at the Conclusion of the Year, taking into the Account all the possible Expences and Outgoings of a Farm, and the total Amount of the Produce of a Farm; from which a Balance is easily struck, and the Profit and Loss of a Farm will be at once apparent. By a Practical Farmer. (To be continued annually.) 4to. pp. 140. Rivingtons.

To those farmers who wish to be methodical, this plan of accounts and method of arranging agricultural minutes may be very useful. The compiler also hints that his journal will be of essential benefit to Bailiffs and Stewards; and if he be encouraged to continue it annually, he purposes occasionally to add many observations on agricultural subjects, and to collect hints from such publications as may not otherwise come to the knowledge or be within the reach of the ordinary farmer.—A scheme of this kind must be left to speak for itself.

EAST INDIES.

Art. 28. *A Letter to the Chairman of the East India Company, on the Danger of interfering in the religious Opinions of the Natives of India; and on the Views of the British and Foreign Bible Society, as directed to India.* By Thomas Twining, late senior Merchant on the Bengal Establishment. Third Edition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

Art.

Art. 29. *A Few Cursory Remarks on Mr. Twining's Letter to the Chairman of the East India Company.* By a Member of the British and Foreign Bible Society. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Art. 30. *An Address to the Chairman of the East India Company, occasioned by Mr. Twining's Letter to that Gentleman, &c. &c.* By the Rev. John Owen, M.A. Curate of Fulham, and one of the gratuitous Secretaries of the British and Foreign Bible Society. Second Edition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

The diffusion of religious truth is a matter of great moment, and the adoption of proper measures for accelerating it must administer satisfaction to every good Christian: but it should not be forgotten that there may be "a zeal for God which is not according to knowledge," and that many schemes are piously planned which in their execution are productive of more injury than benefit. If we admit Mr. Twining's report respecting the efforts made by the Missionaries of the Bible Society in the East, we have more reason to be alarmed than gratified by their exertions; since we must apprehend that, by the religious innovation which they are labouring to introduce, they will (as he says) spread indignation from one end of Hindostan to the other, and 'that the arms of fifty millions of people will then rise against us, and drive us with as much ease from that portion of the globe as the sand of the desert is scattered by the wind.' Having long been resident among the natives of India, he may be supposed well acquainted with their character; and he speaks of them as 'a religious rather than a political people, who are as much attached to their Religion, as we are to our Constitution.' On these grounds, he ventures to express his fears of the consequences which might result from the proselyting labours of the Bible-Society Missionaries; especially when he considers how warmly they are patronized by some of the most respectable members of the Court of Directors and the Board of Control.

The author of *Cursory Remarks* accuses Mr. Twining, in consequence of his admonitory address to the Chairman of the East India Company, of endeavoring 'to frighten the Company from imparting the blessings of Christianity to 50 millions of people in India; and of representing the circulation of the Scriptures among them as a crime of the deepest dye:'—while Mr. Owen exults at finding that Mr. Twining has proved '*Nothing*' against the Bible Society, whose object is specific and confined; and who must spurn the imputation which is attempted to be fastened on them.

As reporters of this controversy, we must remark that Mr. Twining does not endeavour to prove any overt-act of false zeal committed against the superstitions of India, so much as the danger which he perceives to be approaching from an interference to which the agents of the Bible Society, under the patronage of our government in the East, may be stimulated. This danger is not discussed in either of the pamphlets in reply to Mr. Twining, which are confined to a vindication of the views of the Bible Society. If Mr. T. has sounded a false alarm, his letter can do no evil: but if he has exposed a latent ardour for proselytism in certain persons, by which the existence of our empire in the East may be endangered,—or, if

by only calling the attention of the East India Company at large to a serious consideration of the subjects mentioned in the title of his pamphlet, he has contributed to check the extravagance of inflamed zeal, to disclose the schemes of mistaken policy or of *ecclesiastical ambition** in India, and to prompt measures of sound discretion, — he is certainly intitled to the thanks of the Company and of the public.

Two or three other pamphlets on this discussion have appeared, which we have not yet seen.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 31. *A Letter to the Right Hon. the Earl of D*** on the Political Relations of Russia, in regard to Turkey, Greece and France; and on the Means of preventing the French establishing a permanent Controul over Russia; with Strictures on Mr. Thornton's Present State of Turkey, &c.* By William Eton, Esq. Author of a Survey of the Turkish Empire, of Materials for a History of the Maltese, &c. Superintendent General of the quarantine Department, and President of the Board of Health in Malta, &c. 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

We cannot compliment Mr. Eton very highly on this pamphlet, whether it be really intended as a vehicle of his sentiments respecting our securing an alliance with Russia at all events and by all concessions, or for the purpose which it avows, of replying to the objections of Mr. Thornton against the accuracy of Mr. Eton's former volume on Turkey. We confess that we can discover no arguments of extraordinary cogency or novelty, no remarkably acute reasoning, nor the production of convincing proofs, either in the one case or the other. If it were Mr. E.'s first object to confute Mr. T., this should rather have been done by facts than by explanations of meanings, or by bare denial. The intelligent English reader of the works of these gentlemen, who is desirous of sterling information, and wishes to make up his mind on the subject of Levant history and politics, is now told by the one that the other author has either given a loose rein to his prejudices, or has glossed over his ignorance concerning almost every topic of which he treats.

Mr. Eton opens the charge, or rather the recrimination, as follows:

'I have been induced to make these observations, and to enter upon the above explanation, in consequence of a work which has lately appeared, under the title of the Present State of Turkey, professed to be written by a Mr. Thornton, a gentleman who states himself to have resided, during several years, at Constantinople. The tendency of his work is the opposite of mine. His aim appears to me to exalt the character of the Turks; to vindicate them from the observations of other writers, and to deteriorate our estimation of every thing connected with the Russian system. It is therefore to this circumstance, perhaps, and, as I am willing to believe, not to any personal

* It has been hinted that the establishment of *Asiatic Bishopsrics* would facilitate the work of propagating the Faith.

motives of resentment or ill-will, that I am to ascribe the peculiar severity which this gentleman has evinced towards myself, throughout the whole course of his dissertation. He has thought proper to deny most of the facts, and to combat many of the positions which I have advanced, in what I have written upon the same subject. This circumstance alone would authorize my intruding myself once more on the attention of the public, in order to vindicate the accuracy of my own statements, and expose the many errors and fallacious reasoning which this gentleman has adopted.

‘ Whatever reason, however, I may have to complain of the manner in which I have been brought forward by Mr. Thornton—my sentences garbled—my opinions misrepresented—my name industrially and unnecessarily introduced in almost every page, with no other view, it should seem, than to depreciate any estimation which I might have acquired, I know not whether I should have publicly noticed this performance, had not the matter of his work become of *the highest importance in the present moment*. Your Lordship, perhaps, will think that I have little reason to be alarmed for my own credit, on account of any thing which has been written by this gentleman. Although he bluntly contradicts what I have advanced, not always in the politest terms—although he repeatedly asserts, that things are not as I have stated them, in my Survey of the Turkish Empire, I may be permitted, however, to ask, whether in questioning the accuracy of my positions, he has ever ventured to state what the truth really is; and yet this, I apprehend, is required of any author, who undertakes to impeach the credit of another. If he had corrected any error, into which I had fallen, I should instantly have confessed myself mistaken, and even expressed to him my obligations.

‘ But what one author has this gentleman spared, even after he has plundered him? How many, besides myself, has he dragged in, with no other view than to abuse them?

‘ Upon the general nature of Mr. Thornton’s work, it is not necessary, or perhaps becoming, that I should say much. I might challenge him to point out what is really new in his book. Has he fully digested any particular subject? given the various opinions of authors on the same point; and, adding his own observations, drawn a clear and rational conclusion? Has he any where elucidated one doubtful fact of importance? His readers will best judge.

‘ To me his work, so far from being original, has appeared to contain scarcely any thing new with regard to its ostensible subject. In a general view, as far as such an inflated assemblage of heterogeneous matter can be characterized, it comprehends little else than the old stories of the French eulogists on the Turks, repeated with less precision, method, or address.’

Of the future dominion of the rich provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia, there seems to be but one opinion; which is, that it must inevitably pass from the Ottoman power. Whether it would be better for this country that the Austrians or the Russians should obtain it, is a subject on which Messrs. E. and T. maintain irreconcilable sentiments.

That

That Greece should fall into the hands of the Russians is a matter, according to Mr. Eton, by no means to be prevented or depre-
 eated by us. We are to be, at all events, the firm allies of Russia;
 and if such an enlargement of territory should induce her ever to
 treat us with insolence, Mr. E. 'cannot help considering Malta as
 a straight-waistcoat which may be used in case of temporary insanity
 in the Russian councils.' (p. 20, and more at p. 32.) We may now
 avail ourselves of this hint.—When he accuses his competitor of gross
 partiality in favour of the Turks, he takes an odd method of proving
 it, by reprinting Mr. Thornton's very severe but just remarks *against*
 them. 'Upon the whole, whenever Mr. T. has to contradict the
 opinion of others, he is full *as abusive* of the Turks as he accuses
 me of being; and upon such occasions he vindicates them, with all
 his might.' (p. 79.)

Mr. Eton's partiality to the Russian cause may be explained by
 many who have either resided in or visited the Levant. We decline
 all personality: but such a panegyric, many pages in length, with the
 following conclusion, can be attributed only to extraordinary calls of
 gratitude:

'Society, in short, both at the court of St. Petersburg and at
 Moscow, is most agreeable, instructive, and refined. The very great
 acuteness of the Russians; their natural penetration, and good sense;
 their desire of pleasing, perhaps from vanity; and the conscious
 sense to what a high state of refinement society has attained among
 them, with the national pride of being thought more polite than any
 other; all contribute to produce a wonderful degree of perfection.'

Mr. T. having inserted a severe note concerning a work, called
 "The Present State of the Ottoman Empire, translated from the
 French MS. of Elias Habesci, many years resident at Constan-
 tinople, in the Service of the Grand Signor, London, 1784," as a
 manufacture under a suppositious name, and having given shrewd
 intimations of its real author, Mr. E. confesses that his temper 'was
 somewhat ruffled.' (p. 95). Why? Because E. Habesci is called
 by Mr. T. *an ignorant impostor, &c.* (*ibid.*)

We are tempted to make a conjectural effort to reconcile the
 extreme discrepancy of evidence given by these contending authors,
 (*Arcades ambo!*) respecting the Levant and its concerns. We think
 that Mr. Eton determines the Turkish character from the Pashas,
 and collectors of the Haradj or capitation tax, whom he has seen in
 the islands and in Greece; and that of the Greeks from those whom
 he has known in their native country. Mr. Thornton, having been
 resident in the Capital, draws his portrait of the Turks from the
 Porte and city; in which the Greeks have no national importance,
 and are inferior in point of population, and where they exist and
 thrive only by arts which disgrace all moral principles.

Art. 32. *The Rising Sun*, a Serio-comic Satiric Romance. By
 Cervantes Hogg, F. S. M. 12mo. 3 vols. 11. 1s. Boards.
 Appleyard. 1807.

This *Fellow of the Swinish Multitude* (for such is the title with
 which the writer has thought proper to dub himself) takes very
 audacious

audacious liberties with the most elevated characters in the state, and lets loose his *boggish* satire on "kings and sons of kings," as if these privileged individuals had no peculiar sanctity by which they were hedged in and discriminated from the croud. We allow his talents to be superior to those of his grunting brethren; and his exertion of them in these volumes will probably be acceptable to many readers in this age of love for scandal and satire.

Art. 33. *Thoughts on Affectation*, addressed chiefly to Young People. 8vo. pp. 296. 6s. Boards. Wilkie and Robinson.

That affectation which is discoverable in persons of different ages, sexes, and conditions of life, is here treated at large; the various virtues and vices, amiable qualifications, disagreeable habits of mankind, and the accidental circumstances of life, are also examined; and it is shewn that, in these several particulars, instances of affectation are frequently found, and sometimes of the most absurd nature.

The writer, who it appears is a female, has contrived to discuss the several subjects in an amusing as well as instructive manner, and has agreeably illustrated them with familiar examples. Indeed, the work seems to be the result of much experience, and a long course of observation: the production of one who was able to discover the motives of her own heart, and had sagacity sufficient to find out those of others; who could see through the veil of deceit, and possessed ability to expose it to the world.

On account, then, of the excellent tendency of this volume, and of the just sentiments and valuable advice which it contains, we warmly recommend it for the instruction of young people. A careful perusal of it will not only contribute to teach them a knowledge of the world, but the still more important knowledge of themselves: indeed, persons of every age may reap benefit from it, as it may occasion them to throw off that disguise of character which is certainly too prevalent.

Art. 34. *Rays of Genius*, collected to enlighten the Rising Generation. By Thomas Tomkins. 12mo. 2 Vols. pp. 321. and 341. 15s. extra Boards. Longman and Co.

Short essays on the most familiar and interesting subjects compose this work, which is partly original, and partly a compilation. The author's design is not only to excite in youth a desire for literary pursuits, but also to recommend the cultivation of refined taste and virtuous affections. To illustrate the subjects which he engages to discuss, quotations from the best authors in the English language, both in prose and verse, are brought forwards; and, as these contain some of the most elegant specimens, and are selected with taste, the volumes have considerable attraction.

Art. 35. *An Excursion from Sidmouth to Chester*, in the Summer of 1803, in a Series of Letters to a Lady. Including Sketches of the principal Towns and Villages in the Counties of Devon, Somerset, Gloucester, Monmouth, Hereford, Salop, Derby, Stafford, Warwick, and Worcester; interspersed with biographical Anecdotes, and incidental Remarks; particularly intended for the

the Information and Amusement of the rising Generation. By the Rev. Edmund Butcher. 12mo. 2 Vols. pp. 462. 8s. Boards. Symonds.

These letters give an historical and descriptive account of the several places which lay in the author's route, and are written in an entertaining manner. In order to make the work more perfect, extracts from other tourists, descriptive of the neighbouring places which Mr. Butcher could not conveniently visit, are occasionally given; and farther to add to its utility, a variety of moral reflections are introduced, which were suggested by incidents that occurred in the excursion. As the author is not of the established church, this circumstance sometimes gives a peculiar cast to his sentiments; which, however, any liberal person will acknowledge to be very moderate. In short, from the instruction and entertainment that may be derived from these letters, we think that Mr. B. was justified in making them public; and that not only 'private friendship,' but also general readers will be gratified by a perusal of them.

Art. 36. *Politics of the Georgium Sidus; or Advice how to become great Senators and Statesmen; interspersed with characteristic Sketches and Hints on various Subjects in Modern Politics.* By a late Member of Parliament. Crown 8vo. pp. 178. 5s. 6d. Boards. Oddy and Co. 1807.

Somewhat after the manner of Swift's Rules for Servants, advice is here volunteered to the genteel part of the rising generation; who are already so much modelled on the plan suggested, that the intended irony almost disappears. Our modern gentlemen of *ton* will scarcely conceive the ridicule of having it recommended to them to discard the pedantry of science and literature, and to seek distinction by imitating their own stable-boys and coach-men; to prefer boxing-matches, bull-baiting, &c. to mental improvement; and to be ambitious of no other fame than that which results from a pre-eminence in fashionable vices. This system of levelling *down* is more encouraged than the plan of levelling *up*; though in our judgment it is the most fatal species of Jacobinism. If irony could shame our nobility and gentry into a more dignified conduct, we should rejoice.

Truth, it has been said, may be the greatest libel, and so it sometimes is in the review of political characters. The opposition politics of our Georgium Sidus are largely *ironized*, and some of the members of the late administration come in for a few hard knocks. Undertaking to give rules for the education and subsequent conduct of a young M.P. through all the stages of his political life, the writer artfully sketches the traits of those who have been the most celebrated leaders of opposition; and he wishes to have it believed that these men are neither wiser nor better than those who, regarding "self-love and social as the same," never pretended to love their country better than they loved themselves. The author attempts to smile: but some of his readers will say that it is a smile suffused with gall.

CORRESPONDENCE.

In replying to the second letter of *Veritas*, we must observe that it is no more surprising that different systems of theology should be erected on the basis of Revelation, than that different systems of philosophy should be deduced from the works of Nature. We cannot think, with him, that in the varieties of religious faith the nature of the Supreme Being is implicated. Diversities of opinion occur on the plainest questions, and therefore afford no evidence to prove a want of clearness in Revelation. To every denomination and sect, it appears to speak without ambiguity. The Unitarian and the Jew will say that no words could possibly have been employed more fully to express the absolute Unity of God, than those which are used in the O. T.; and yet the great majority of Christian churches perceive, in this part of the Bible, testimonies in support of the doctrine of a Trinity. Before an absolute uniformity of opinion can take place, mankind must be so moulded as to see matters through the same medium, and to collect and arrange their ideas precisely in the same way.

We shall take this opportunity of illustrating our remark that some prophecies may be in the nature of 'sealed orders,' the contents or meaning of which were not immediately to be disclosed. When our Saviour prophetically observed, "Destroy this temple, and in three days I will build it up," he conveyed, and *designedly* conveyed, at the time, no meaning: but, after his Resurrection, which may be said to have opened the seal of this prediction, every doubt vanished respecting its purport.

We have not seen the *Ecclesiastica Hora*, nor had we heard of the work previously to the receipt of the author's letter concerning it.

In our last number, we omitted to acknowledge our *Gloucester* correspondent's letter &c. on the *Exercise of a Squadron*.

We could state many objections against the scheme proposed by R.B., which we do not deem it necessary to enumerate; one of them would be that we should not conceive it to be *practicable*.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. LIV. of the Review is published with this Number, and contains various interesting articles in FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *Title, Index, &c.* for the volume. On this occasion, we repeat the notice inserted in our last number: 'We have often received complaints from our readers, respecting the irregular manner in which our Appendixes are supplied to them by their booksellers; and we are sorry again to have occasion for adverting to this subject. We request our friends, however, to observe that the *publication* of our supplements, if not the *delivery* of them in the country, invariably takes place with that of the numbers for the months of January, May, and September in every year; and it in fact rests with them to impress on their booksellers a due attention to the supply of these numbers, in which alone we give accounts of the productions of Continental presses, and without which no copy of the M.R. can ever be complete, or be bound up in volumes.'



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY, 1808.

ART. I. *The Works of Sallust*; to which are prefixed Two Essays on the Life, Literary Character, and Writings of the Historian; with Notes historical, biographical, and critical. By Henry Steuart, LL.D., Fellow of the Royal Society, and of the Society of Antiquaries of Edinburgh. 4to. 2 Vols. pp. 1305. 4l. 12s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin.

TRANSLATORS and commentators have long been reproached with amplification and verbosity; and while the incompetency of the former has often mistaken or impoverished the meaning of an author, the wandering conjectures of the latter have frequently ascribed to him ideas and allusions which he never entertained. It is not only, however, that

“—Learned Commentators view

In Homer more than Homer knew;”

nor that they occasionally murder passages under the torture of their conversion, but they sometimes almost annihilate their whole prototype by burying it under the disproportionate load of their own accretions. On these occasions, we cannot always refrain from calling to mind the anecdote of the good woman in North Britain; who, after having heard a *Mess John* deliver a long harangue in exposition of a text of scripture, declared her dissatisfaction to a neighbouring gossip, by observing that when the Divine had read the chapter as it was printed in the Bible, she understood it very well, and thought it very good: but, when he had been *expoonding and expoonding it above an hour, she did no’ understand it at a’*.

Shall we apply any or all of these remarks to the publication before us? The reader shall decide when he has perused the present article: but the mere circumstance of the writings of Sallust being rendered the basis of two large quarto volumes will perhaps make him tremble for the fate of the foundation, and contemplate the superstructure with fearful amazement.

The first of these massy volumes contains two essays; the life and genius of Sallust forming the subject of the one,

and his literary character and writings being treated in the other. It also comprises translations of the two letters addressed to *Cæsar de Republicâ Ordinandâ*, which are generally attributed to the historian. In the second volume, we are presented with translations of the Catilinian Conspiracy, and the Jugurthine War. Very copious notes are subjoined to each of these productions; and a Preface introduces the whole publication, which may be considered as an Index-map to the extensive Chart before us, pointing out by reference the regions delineated on a larger scale, and possibly also abridging the labors of a majority of those who inspect it, by deterring them from any examination of the stupendous original.

The Essay on the Life and Genius of Sallust lays bold claim to the merit of collecting a greater mass of knowledge on the subject than has ever before been brought together: yet, after having carefully perused it with all its notes, and after having balanced the doubts and considered the arguments adduced,—instead of indulging in the self-gratulation that results from the communication of new lights, and the participation of ingenious discoveries,—we calmly paused to inquire what addition Dr. Steuart had made to our old stock of information, derived from the unassuming memoirs of earlier writers. We had indeed been furnished with much explanation of such of the Roman customs as are most universally understood; with many anecdotes of those Roman characters which to all, who have any acquaintance with the history of that period, are nearly as familiar as their own concerns; and with copious extracts from Cicero and Plutarch, Dr. Middleton and Dr. Adam, which we think it was unnecessary to transcribe, because we do not apprehend that the present work will supersede the well-known productions of those established authors:—but, after all this, the character of Sallust remained unaltered in our view. Loose and profligate in his pleasures, corrupt in his politics, the enemy of Cicero and the friend of Clodius, the agitator of the mob and the outcast of the Senate, he embarked at length with Cæsar in his conspiracy against the free constitution of his country. He served under that great commander in the civil war: but, though his present panegyrist has extolled his military virtues, we find only two of his exploits recorded: in the first of which he captured an undefended island; and in the second, having the command of some troops which mutinied against him, he fled secretly from them in the height of their violence; in consequence of which desertion, they massacred all the persons in authority within their reach. The
reward

reward of his treason against the commonwealth was a province, in which he amassed enormous riches by plunder and extortion, which he preserved by means of the grossest bribery, and wasted in luxurious dissipation. Though his writings may make some atonement for his conduct, their rigid morality proves that he sinned with his eyes open, and convicts him either of unblushing effrontery or of odious dissimulation.

Such is the idea of Sallust which common opinion has adopted from his ordinary biographers, and Dr. Steuart does not even suggest an alteration in the general facts from which it is derived. Yet he is very unwilling to admit, in direct terms, that which his own narrative completely proves; and the general reasoning, by which he would exculpate his hero, is contained in the following passage:

'As vice and virtue are qualities diametrically opposite in their nature, we may assert, that the existence of the one, in any remarkable degree, necessarily implies the absence of the other. Great intellectual culture, and great intellectual debasement, have a close analogy to these qualities, and are often their respective concomitants: accordingly it may be believed, that the former can no more coalesce with gross excesses of vice, than the latter can have place amidst high sentiments of virtue. If this be true, it will follow, of course, that the evidence, which would attribute to Sallust almost every crime, that can disfigure and degrade human nature, must, even at first sight, appear suspicious; and it will be still more invalidated, when we reflect, that he, who found leisure only for so great and continued mental efforts, could not probably be sunk, as is supposed, in the lowest depths of profligacy.'

We wish, for the sake of humanity, that this theory were just: but we fear that, if the example of Catiline himself were insufficient, the history of Napoleon would but too clearly evince the possibility of uniting the most extraordinary intellectual powers with the most degrading moral turpitude.

Besides this metaphysical apology, the present translator appears as a legal advocate to defend his client from a particular charge, under which he has long laboured; and, though it is immaterial whether such a man as Sallust was guilty or innocent of some one offence more or less, we shall present our readers with a specimen of the style in which his defender comments on evidence.

It has been generally believed, on the authority of Aulus Gellius, who cites the fact from Varro, (*fide homo mult. et gravis*,) that Sallust the historian, the severe and censorious Sallust, was detected in an amour with Fausta, the daughter of Sylla, and wife of Milo; and that the enraged husband carried

his vengeance so far as even to inflict a whipping on the adulterer. The manner in which this anecdote is introduced, and the contrast studiously drawn between the moral writings of the historian and this ignominious occurrence, afford a decisive proof that Aulus Gellius did not mistake as to the person chastised. In a note on Virgil's expression in the sixth *Æneid*, "*Quique ad adulterium casi*," Servius states that the *historian Sallust* is the person here meant; and the same is affirmed by Acron and Porphyryon in their comments on a similar passage in Horace, in which the poet enumerates a flagellation among the inconveniencies of illicit gallantry. At the distance of a few verses, some person of the name of Sallust is taxed with an excessive attachment to the daughters of freed-men; which the scholiast illustrates by an anecdote of the *historian*, who boasted in the senate that he confined his amours to women of inferior rank; and it is inferred that the chastisement previously received at the hands of Milo was sufficient to deter him from running any farther hazards by intriguing in the families of the great and powerful. The event is mentioned by Asconius Pedianus, and other grammarians, to have been seized by his enemies as the pretence for expelling him from the Senate; and it easily accounts for the activity and eagerness with which, when a tribune of the people, he entered on the prosecution of Milo.

That a circumstance of such a nature should receive such a variety of direct and indirect corroboration may seem rather surprising: but that it should now be controverted was beyond all expectation. The main argument, on which Dr. Steuart founds his refutation, is this: the old scholiasts on Horace imagine that the Sallust described in the satire above quoted is the same Sallust to whom the ode, beginning "*Nullus argenti color est*," is inscribed; and as it is proved that this ode was addressed not to the historian, but to one of his nephews, the disgrace of the whipping must be transferred from the former to the latter. In answer, we shall merely observe that the evidence of the fact is not derived from Horace, in speaking of Sallust, but from his commentators, in explaining the phrase "*flagellis ad mortem casus*;" that Dr. S. himself characterizes this assertion of identity as an *error*, (p. 114.) which we deem a very pardonable one, considering that it is perfectly immaterial to the elucidation of Horace, either in the satire or the ode; and that no explanation is offered of the contrary affirmations made by those scholiasts themselves, of Servius, of Asconius Pedianus, and of Aulus Gellius. The other strong argument is drawn from the suppression of the anecdote in the oration against Sallust that passes under the name of Cicero;—an
oration

oration which the Doctor himself uniformly stigmatizes as the fiction of a declaimer, in which no regard was paid to the truth of the accusations preferred, nor any object considered but the unrestrained indulgence of virulent and *fabricated* invective.

At any rate, Dr. Steuart's views in this respect are not entirely free from doubt; and as they are at variance with the general persuasion of the learned, from the scholiasts on Horace and Virgil to Meisner and Murphy, it might have been decent to bring them forwards with modesty and mildness, and to have abstained at least from any expressions of contempt against those who may hold a contrary opinion. Yet the President de Brosses is overpowered by the Doctor's virtuous indignation; the remarks of Meisner are considered as too absurd to be refuted; and Le Clerc is not only charged with error and inaccuracy, but is perpetually accused of being prompted to deliberate misrepresentation, by a strange malignity and personal hatred against the Roman historian. Our readers will, we are confident, dispense with our investigating the probability that such motives should have actuated that acute and liberal scholar; they will also duly appreciate the wisdom of Dr. Steuart, in accusing such a man of folly: (p. 77.) but, if the *manes* of departed men of letters are still permitted to survey the productions of literature, those of Le Clerc will certainly find ample compensation for the vehemence with which he has been attacked, in the following *morceau* of ob-jurgatory eloquence:

‘Concerning the principles on which the style of Sallust was formed, what has been here offered is a much more probable, and, surely, a more liberal account, than the virulent decision of the biographer, who asserts, that severity of precept, and elevation of language were assumed, by the historian, as a cloak to licentiousness of manners. By affecting, he says, the antiquated phraseology of the old republic, Sallust hoped to persuade the reader, that his life had been a transcript of the virtues of a former day. As well might we say of Le Clerc, the author of this remark, that his own imitation of the antient models sprung from a similar cause. The satisfaction, we might allege, which he visibly betrays in the reprehension of Sallust, was but a cover to the consciousness that the same irregularities were imputable to himself. He, who deliberately mangles the reputation of another, can have no cause to complain, if severe reprisals be made upon his own; and the *manes* of Sallust, we may believe, were sufficiently pacified, when the Professor of Amsterdam afterwards smarted under the lash of Bentley, and the intolerable abuse of the elder Burman.’

In the Second Essay, the avowed subject of which is the literary character of Sallust, we found, as soon as we could

extricate ourselves from the endless mazes of diction in which all the author's propositions are involved, that the opinions of the present critic are in complete unison with those of all mankind. Sallust is described as a profound and original thinker, a sagacious observer of character, and an animated and generally impartial relater of facts: but his style is admitted to be occasionally harsh and abrupt; and his honesty is fairly questioned on account of the slight and careless manner in which he speaks of the most conspicuous actor in defeating the conspiracy of Catiline. These truisms assume the appearance of paradoxes, and challenge opposition, by being maintained with a zeal truly controversial; and the author betrays as much soreness in his manner, as if the learned of all ages had entered into a general conspiracy to degrade and revile the intellectual character of Sallust. Observations to his disadvantage are scraped together from all quarters, to prove the Doctor's skill in apologies; and even the forgotten criticisms of Sir John Cheke and Roger Ascham are revived in order to be overthrown. If Dr. S. be correct in withholding from Tacitus the praise of being 'the first of historians who applied the science of philosophy to the study of facts,' he has surely been guilty of great injustice to the immortal historians of Athens, by conferring a similar title on Sallust.

Le Clerc's opinion, that the historical works in question were composed immediately after the author's tribunate had expired, is rendered improbable by Dr. Steuart's observations, p. 241: but we see no reason for condemning the conjecture of Dr. Middleton, adopted by Dr. Adam, that Cicero's name was mentioned with coldness and injustice because it was obnoxious to envy *in the reign of Augustus*. The essayist argues that this could not possibly be the historian's motive; because the reign of Augustus did not commence till the victory was obtained by him at Actium, at which time Sallust had been dead four years. It is certainly true that the empire of Augustus was not secured till Antony was defeated at Actium: but his power was established *at Rome* almost from the moment of his uncle's death; and his jealousy of praise bestowed on the eloquent republican would naturally be most alive while the issue of the contest was doubtful, and the recollection of his own cruelty and baseness was yet fresh in the minds of his countrymen. Unless, therefore, we sacrifice sense to a sound, we shall be satisfied that, for the purpose of influencing the conduct of a writer devoted to the cause of Augustus, he was in fact the *reigning emperor* at least twelve years before the battle of Actium.

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This Essay concludes with a complete catalogue of the editions and translations of Sallust; omitting, we think, no other than the stereotype of Didot, which is indeed the less valuable because it does not comprise the two epistles to Cæsar. The several translations are treated with great freedom, and some severity: one is too servile, another too licentious; one is fettered by the restrictions of a foreign idiom, another is disfigured by colloquial barbarism; one is censured for the absurd vanity of containing a smaller number of words than the original, another is made tame and languid by excessive diffusion:—

“ Eheu !

Quam temerè in nosmet legem sancimus iniquam !”

Concerning the principles on which classical translations in general ought to be conducted, it seems that we must not presume to offer any observations; since the orthodox faith has been settled on the other side of the Tweed, and is recorded in a treatise by Mr. Tytler, now Lord Woodhouselee, to whom the present work is dedicated. Dreading, as we do, the imputation of barbarism and heresy, we shall express our opinions on this subject in the modest and sensible language of the late Dr. Rose; whose translation of Sallust, printed in the year 1751, (the first edition anonymous,) is certainly not praised too highly by his present competitor. In that unpretending publication, we find the following remarks at p. iv. of the preface: “His (Dr. Rose’s) great aim has been to preserve a due medium between a verbal, and too bold and free a translation; having made it his first care to preserve the sentiment of his author, and his next, to adhere to his words, as far as he was able to express them in an easy and natural manner,”—thus presenting the young scholar with such a version as has “all the advantages of literal translation, without its flatness,”—and at the same time furnishing those, who are entirely ignorant of Latin, with such an account of the events related by Sallust, “as should have something of the air of an original.”

Dr. Steuart has offered an apology for a marked peculiarity of style, which strikes us as both novel and judicious:

‘It has been said by some critics, but, I think, without justice in regard to history, that the most perfect style, like the most perfect countenance, should have no prominent, or peculiar features. If this be the case, from whence shall it derive its strength and energy? Strength of feature, whether of countenance, or of composition, seems inseparable from some portion of characteristic peculiarity. A writer’s style is supposed to reflect the image of his

mind : and I cannot conceive how it should enhance the value, or add to the interest of that image, to refine it to any arbitrary standard, which should efface its identity.'

Now it is obvious that, if the translator of a work of this character be required only to consider what was intended to be expressed in the original, and may conceive that his duty is well discharged when he has conveyed the same meaning in that English style which happens to be fashionable, here is an end of all that is interesting and energetic in singularity. Under such a system, it will be idle to discuss the distinctive qualities of Sallust, Livy, and Tacitus ; one useful purpose of studying the immortal works of the antients, in fixing standards of taste, and resisting the capricious fluctuations of speech, is entirely defeated ; and the various striking features, which adorned their noble edifices, will be planed down at once to the same flat surface of modern insipidity.

Of the manner in which Dr. Steuart has executed his task, we are naturally desirous of forming the most favorable judgment, since we have some reason for supposing that the public are partly indebted for this elaborate work to the *Monthly Review*. In p. xi. of the preface, we are complimented by a quotation of the remark which a perusal of Mr. Murphy's *Tacitus* suggested to us, on the deficiency of good translations from the antient authors*. We will frankly own, however, that, if we had been consulted as to the classic of whose works a translation was most wanted, we should not have fixed on Sallust ; to whom, in our opinion, Dr. Rose's convenient version, in a neat and portable form, accompanied perhaps by a commentary on the contemporary history, would have done complete justice : but, as we felt ourselves obliged to censure Mr. Murphy as too paraphrastic, the present translator can hardly be surprised at our objections to his mode of representing his author. That his style bears no resemblance to that of Sallust, he appears by no means unwilling to acknowledge ; how far he has excelled his master, or whether indeed he has given the contents of his

* As we see no ground for altering the observation to which Dr. S. refers, we here take occasion to repeat it : " There is no department, in which the English have less excelled, than in translations from Greek and Roman authors. It is singular that, with a numerous body of clergy, whose leisure is so liberally patronized by the nation, and who pique themselves on classical acquirements, there should still remain a single ancient writer inaccessible to those who cultivate only the language of their native country." *M.R.* Vol. xii. N.S. p. 194.

works with fidelity and in a good English style, we shall now attempt to enable our readers to form an estimate.

The distinguishing characteristic of this translator is a modest consciousness of the defects of his author, combined with a charitable wish to supply and correct them from the ampler stores of his own mind. He is by no means satisfied with conveying what has been said, but has generously added much more, which Sallust would no doubt have been happy to express if his understanding had suggested it, or his powers of language could have done justice to it. In a word, he is an indulgent tutor, inserting all those graceful additions and amplifications, which are requisite for displaying to the best advantage the imperfect exercises of a youthful pupil. We pass over the comparatively insignificant subject of the Epistles to Cæsar, (which we are on the whole inclined to regard as genuine, though not exactly for the reasons offered by Dr. Steuart,) and proceed at once to that master-piece of historical composition, the Conspiracy of Catiline. The proœmium, which is occupied in discussing the metaphysical question whether the mental or bodily powers are intitled to the preference, closes with a short and simple statement of the author's motives for writing history: "*Sed ego adolescentulus initia,*" &c. In this passage, though all common readers have agreed with Sallust in thinking that enough had been expressed for any useful purpose, Dr. Steuart has liberally thrown in a large gratuity of supererogatory ornament, by rendering the particle *sed* into the following sentence: '*for myself, I know not how far I am qualified for this undertaking.*' In the next paragraph, *eo magis* is modernised into this literary egotism—'*For a task like this I trust I am the better fitted*':—but these are trifles.

The character of Catiline, as drawn by Sallust, has been so thoroughly studied by all scholars, that we shall deny ourselves the gratification of extracting it: but our readers would be intitled to complain, if we observed a similar conduct in respect to Dr. S.'s representation of it:

'Lucius Catiline was descended from a family of illustrious rank. He possessed, in an eminent degree, both vigour of mind, and bodily strength; but his disposition, which *naturally was wicked, was rendered, by habit, profligate and irreclaimable.*

'Catiline delighted in broils, in civil commotion, in rapine and bloodshed. In such scenes he had mingled from his early years, *eager to exercise his talents for mischief.* With a constitution capable of enduring, beyond belief, the extremes of cold, of want, and of continued watching, he united a spirit, which was, at once, daring, crafty, and versatile. He could frame any falsehood; he could dissemble any truth; *ever ready to support an artificial character.* In the gratification
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of his appetites he was *fierce and ungovernable*; covetous, to a degree, of the possessions of others, prodigal, *alike*, of his own fortune; and, while copious and voluble in talk, endued with but a small share of solid understanding. Yet the genius of the man was towering and romantic. His ambition was altogether of that ardent sort, which loves the vast and the incredible, and aims at objects wholly beyond its attainment.

‘Such being the manners and character of Catiline, it can excite no wonder, if, after the example of Sylla, he deeply fixed his wishes on the supreme power, and subverting the government. *Fired by the success of that usurper, he burned to enter on a like splendid career, and felt no scruple about the means.* The ruin of his fortune, together with the consciousness of many crimes, had stung his fierce spirit with remorse and disappointment; and these evils could not fail to be increased, by the depraved habits and propensities, which I have already enumerated. *Nor was the profligacy of Catiline without the incitement of example.* The Roman manners, in this period, *furnished a complete school of corruption.* In the same people they displayed the deplorable union of avarice and luxury, at once the worst, *although, in appearance, the most inconsistent* of vices.’

The improvements are numerous and striking! Who would think it possible to erect so fine a superstructure on the simple basis, *ingenio malo praveque*? — and the discovery of ‘the real distinction between the epithets *Malus* and *Pravus*, which does not seem to have been made by translators in this place,’ is announced with no small exultation in a note at p. 104. ‘*Malus* applies to *that species* of wickedness, which is radical, and inherent by nature: *Pravus* to that which is the fruit of habit and of exercise.’ Without discussing with the Doctor this system of radical and inherent vice, we shall merely observe that the difference, which has generally been remarked between these two adjectives, is that *malus* originally means *bad*, and *pravus* is employed on moral subjects metaphorically, as it is applicable, in its literal interpretation, only to crookedness and deformity: but we are exclusively indebted to the acuteness of Dr. Steuart for the discovery that Horace wished to describe two different feelings, when he talked of *malus pudor*, and *pudens pravé*; and without his aid we should not have imagined that a mis-shapen nose and ankles (*pravo naso, pravis talis*,) were “the fruit of habit and of exercise.”

We forbear to pursue our comments on this celebrated passage. Every learned reader has already remarked its needless amplification of phrase, and its perpetual inversion and dislocation of sentences; while the translator's additions to the admirable traits, *alieni appetens, sui profusus*, may be taken as fair specimens of the grace, the energy, and the perspicuity, which Sallust has generally gained from Dr. Steuart. Indeed, if we extracted the whole of this translation

tion, it would be impossible to convey a more correct idea of the merits of its author than that which may be derived from the foregoing passages; and it is this circumstance alone which induces us to be perhaps unusually sparing of our citations.—One part of the work, however, deserves our peculiar notice. We speak of the immortal orations of Cæsar and Cato; the former distinguished for an unparalleled concentration of the general maxims of moral wisdom and political sagacity; the latter, admirable for its vigorous decision in a case of impending danger;—and both displaying that grand and simple energy of style, which characterises powerful minds when deeply interested on the most important occasions. Will it be believed that Cæsar's remonstrance against the orators who had enlarged on the probable miseries of the menaced revolution,—“*Sed, per deos immortales, quó illa oratio pertinuit? an uti vos infestos conjurationi faceret? scilicet, quem res tanta et tam atrox non permovit, eum oratio accendet,*”—will it be believed that such an original could be rendered thus?

‘By the immortal Gods! what means *such declamation*? Do those, who indulge in it, for a moment imagine, that a Roman Senate will *supinely wait*, to be inflamed against conspiracy, by such *expedients*? Let me ask them, what have bloody treason and real danger to do with *oratory*? Where the approach of the former fails to strike, will the brightest colours of the latter be heeded?’

“*Non ita est: neque cuiquam mortalium injuria suæ parvæ videntur: multi eas gravius æquo habuere.*” The peculiar force of this observation is lost in the version; ‘No! Conscript Fathers; believe me, the wrongs that men endure are but too apt to awaken vengeance;’—and then, because Sallust was unable to treat his subject, the Doctor adds for him: ‘It is the part of wisdom to turn away its edge, and check its fury.’

With the greatest good sense, Cæsar proceeds to enforce the policy of lenity and moderation in governors, who do not, like meaner individuals, possess the privilege of indulging their passions, uncensured and unobserved; since their eminent rank exposes their actions to general notice, and draws down on them the most invidious construction. This topic is ushered in by the remark, “*Sed aliis alia licentia;*” and the translator’s method of preserving the rapid and glowing character of this pithy argument is by wiredrawing these four words into the following sentence: ‘Of the nature of resentment it may be truly observed, that it operates variously, in various classes of mankind.’ Of the nature or the operation of resentment, not a syllable is observed either by Sallust or by Cæsar.

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We have only one remark to add in respect to this oration. The last branch of Cæsar's proposition in the Senate (which Dr. Steuart calls his 'sentiment,') involves a tautology in the translation that is not to be found in the original; and the English wording of it is neither so intelligible, nor so grammatical, as we have reason to believe that the clear and simple decrees of antient Rome universally were;—"and lastly let it be made treason in the man, who shall act contrary hereto, declaring him a traitor, and a public enemy."

To the answer of Cato, we must beg to be excused from paying much minute attention. It is enough to inform the reader that it is executed in the same style: and those, who are most capable of feeling the fervid energy of the Roman patriot, will be most struck with the powers that could metamorphose such an original into the diffuse *verbiage* of a modern newspaper. The contrast drawn by Sallust between those illustrious men is so far from satisfactory to his translator, that he has added a long disquisition, in the form of a note, on the character of Cato. The greater part of this supplement had been previously inserted in the notes to Dr. Steuart's first volume, and nearly the whole may be found in the work of Middleton; who constantly endeavours to lower our estimation of Cato, in revenge for his refusing to vote the unmerited honours of a triumph to the importunate vanity of Tully.

Most of the translators of Sallust, conscious that his narrative of the Conspiracy is in some parts defective, and in others not perfectly correct as to time, have subjoined the cotemporaneous evidence of Cicero; by comparing whose four orations with the historical work, all chasms are filled up, and every mistake may be easily corrected. Dr. Steuart has not pursued this course: but, drawing all the material facts that required notice from the same authority, he has appended them, in the form of notes, to his translation. This possibly may be the best method of rendering the recital distinct; yet it appears to us that the English reader, in thus losing the splendid harangues of the consul, is deprived of some of the most striking features in the *character* of the transaction.

Nothing is more unfavorable to the permanent reputation of works of general literature, than a studious appeal to such topics as derive their interest from the fleeting political passions of a day. The rancorous prejudices that disgraced the early periods of the last war, exaggerating all dangers and distorting every object, might possibly enjoy a perverse gratification in comparing the Earl of Lauderdale and the parliamentary

parliamentary minority to Catiline and his accomplices, and Mr. Pitt to Cicero: but the truly liberal and enlightened mind, far from appealing to vulgar animosities and reviving past jealousies, will regard it as the noblest privilege of letters to tranquillize the agitations of the public mind, and recall it from animosity and violence to moderation and humanity. If we were therefore somewhat surprised to recognize, in Dr. Steuart's enumeration of the English translations of his author, a work published about twelve years ago, the main object of which was to draw in glaring colours the preposterous parallels above mentioned, what was our astonishment when we encountered, in the second volume, the quotation of long and virulent passages from the same tract; passages which display neither force nor eloquence, but which prove that the book could never have had any other merit than that of flattering the passions, and promoting the views, of a powerful and intolerant party?—Perhaps, we shall not obtain the Doctor's thanks for the apology which we are about to offer for the loss of his good humour, by suggesting that it may have yielded in the present instance to the pardonable vanity of authorship: yet nothing, we think, but the partiality of a *parent* can account for the tenderness which he has shewn towards the forgotten offspring of *George Frederic Sidney, Esquire*,—a name which, as he himself assures us, is merely *fictitious*.—Having touched on this subject, we cannot omit to subjoin the political creed of Dr. Steuart, as professed in the following passage: ‘It must be acknowledged that the coincidence is *sufficiently* striking, and might afford a proof, if such a proof were needful, that the real views of REFORMERS have almost *always* had the same objects, the gratification of their ambition, and the overthrow of the governments whose protection they experienced.’

As we hope that we have conveyed to our readers a correct idea of the manner in which Dr. Steuart has translated Sallust, and commented on him, in our remarks on the Catilinian conspiracy, it may be enough to say of the Jugurthine war that it falls under the same description in both particulars: but, as neither the persons nor the events connected with the latter subject are so universally known, as those of which mention is made in relating the former, a greater air of novelty and interest is discernible in the notes. Still, our patience is put to some trials, when Dr. Steuart ascends the chair of judicial criticism. As Sallust's history treats of the grandson of Masinissa, the interesting story of that monarch is not improperly introduced into the notes, from Livy. Sophonisba's answer on receiving the fatal present

present from her husband, which was designed to rescue her from the degradation of appearing in a Roman triumph, has drawn forth as many tears as any anecdote on record: "*Accipio nuptiale munus, nec ingratum; si nihil majus vir uxori prestare potuit. Hoc tamen nuntia; melius me morituram fuisse, si non in funere meo nupsissem:*"—an unexampled union of force, tenderness, and simplicity. Dr. Steuart, however, accuses Livy of indulging in a quaint and declamatory style; and the conclusion of the speech is stigmatised as so intolerably vicious, that 'an attempt is here made to improve it in the translation.' We must not withhold from a circulation as general as it is in our power to bestow, Dr. Steuart's improvement on Livy: but, lest our readers should imagine that we are actually imposing on them for the sake of a joke, we desire to state that the following improved translation is to be found near the top of the five hundred and twelfth page of Dr. S.'s second volume:—"I accept with gratitude, (said the magnanimous Sophonisba, as she drank the cup,) this *pleasing though fatal* marriage-gift, since it is *all* that Masinissa has to offer to his queen. Tell him, that *I die without fear*; and it would *also be without regret, had the transition been less cruel*; had not the nuptial couch unhappily been spread for me, *on the brink of the grave.*" It is thus that Dr. Steuart improves Livy, and avoids the faults of the declaimers!

We are really much inclined to think that the dying speech of Micipsa, in which he exhorts his two sons and his nephew to unanimity, did not require illustration from the trite apologue of the bundle of arrows. That old friend is indeed presented to us with a new face; and we were prepared to expect some important information, when at p. 520 it was announced to us that 'Scilurus, a *certain antient* king, as we learn from Stobæus, being on his death-bed, called together his *eighty* sons; and, putting into their hands a bundle of arrows,' &c.—It would, however, be unjust to deny that many of the notes, and those in particular which relate to the geography and early population of Africa, are both entertaining and instructive. Dr. Steuart has freely and very judiciously drawn from Major Rennell's work on Herodotus, and Dr. Shaw's account of his travels. The map, also, appears to us correct, and might, on a smaller scale, be advantageously placed at the head of the common school editions of the Jugurthine War.

With pleasure we add that the military details are placed in a clear and satisfactory point of view; and the doubts which have long existed in regard to Metellus's mode of forming his troops, as described in the 53d section*, are here removed

* Dr. Steuart makes it the 53d, but in most editions it is the 49th.
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by a reference to the sixth book of Polybius, in which the march of a Roman army is explained, and by distinguishing between their *agmen*, while moving, and their *acies*, when drawn up. Much of the perplexity appears to have arisen from considering *principes* and *principia*, which occur in the same sentence, as synonymous; whereas it is clear that the former are to be taken for those who led the march, and that the latter word signifies the main body of an army, as contradistinguished from the wings. We are not sure that a plan was necessary to render this explanation intelligible, though it certainly makes it more complete. Still, as the Doctor truly observes, the phrase "*triplicibus subsidiis*" is a stumbling block; and the term *subsidium* must here receive a construction which, we believe, it admits in no other place, and must be taken simply for a *rank*, instead of a *supply* brought to support a rank.

If we were to enumerate only the unacknowledged errors of the press which occur in these volumes, we could entertain our readers with a very considerable list of errata: but we fear that not a few of the mistakes which crowd the work are of such a nature, that the author cannot justly be exonerated from them at the expence of the printer's accuracy. Thus, at p. 138 of the first volume, where we are favoured with a quotation of the opening lines of the second book of Lucretius, *Suave* is thrice marked as an adverb. At p. 113 of the second volume, *consilium* is twice confounded with *concilium*. Again, the misquotation of "*Ausoniusque bibat felici pectore fontem*," where *felice* is written instead of *felici*; the mistake of *civile* for *civili* under similar circumstances at p. 219; and more especially the following unmetrical verses,

"*Exul ab octava bibit Marius, et fruitur Idis*,
at p. 195 of Vol. I. and

"*Sergestusque domus tenuit à quo Sergia nomen*,"
at p. 103 of the second volume; throw considerable suspicion on the extent of the Doctor's familiarity with Latin verse. These errors ought to have been the more studiously avoided because they lie near the surface, and might naturally mislead the young scholar, whose benefit the work is expected so greatly to promote.

Of the style of translation adopted in this publication, we have already said enough; and we are sorry that it is not in our power to speak in terms of high commendation of the original style in which the notes are written. *Expiscation* is barely English; *nothing less*, in the sense in which it is here used, is wholly French; and the ambiguity of this phrase (at p. 200 of the second volume) has betrayed the author into an
assertion

assertion directly contrary to his meaning. The barbarous term *relevant* is indeed now pretty generally adopted from the Scotch law : but it signifies "*applicable* to the proof of a proposition," and has no relation to the degree of *force* with which the evidence makes out the proof, in which latter sense it is constantly employed in these volumes. To *join issue* with any one is to controvert his affirmation, not to assent to it, as Dr. Steuart supposes ; and though he may be excused for his ignorance of the language of Westminster-hall, such language, which is never very elegant and harmonious, ought not to be adopted except by those who thoroughly understand it. We shall select but one word more for our animadversion. Many persons have imagined that "to innovate" is a verb neuter, but Dr. Johnson states it to be a verb active. It is rather curious, indeed, that, in two out of his three quotations, it is used as a verb neuter ; though we are willing to admit that the third of them, (the second in order), which is taken from Dryden, proves it to be active. The first definition, and that to which Dryden's lines apply, is "to bring in something not known before ;" the second is "to change, by introducing novelties." Dr. Steuart always uses the word according to the latter definition, which is authorised in Johnson by a single passage from South, and which, we strongly incline to think, has been considered obsolete for the last century.

Dr. Steuart's notes occupy so large a proportion of these volumes, that we may perhaps be expected to make them a subject of separate observation : yet their desultory nature and multifarious contents defy all our endeavours to present a general character of them as the result of our examination ; and preclude us from making any concise extracts as samples of the whole. The confidence that no one 'will complain of narrowness in the range which they have taken,' (pref. p. 7.) may, we are sure, be very reasonably indulged ; and they appear to be well characterised by their author as a specimen of "literary *gossiping*." This word is properly employed to denote the habit of stating trite or unimportant facts with considerable verbosity, and endless repetitions ; — the qualities necessary to make it agreeable are ease, good humour, vivacity of manner, and originality of observation.

We cannot conclude this article without assuring Dr. Steuart that, in passing these free strictures on his publication, we have performed a very painful task : but sentiments of a contrary nature we could not have expressed, consistently with the duty which we owe to our readers, or with a proper regard to the permanency of his own reputation. He certainly possesses attainments that may qualify him to throw light on
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the most interesting portions of classical history, combined with an ardent partiality to the subject, and an industry of research, which have seldom failed to ensure a favorable issue to well directed exertions. When he shall lay before the public the fruits of a leisure so liberally employed, with some attention to method, arrangement, and conciseness, and with less ambition of displaying the extent of his reading, than of selecting from a vast and indiscriminate mass whatever is really important and interesting;—when, in a word, he shall prefer the praise of an *useful* English scholar, to the needless amplifications and tasteless verbosity of a German commentator;—he shall find us among the foremost to applaud the direction of his labours, and to rejoice in their merited success.

ART. II. *The Works of Sallust*: translated into English by the late Arthur Murphy, Esq., Author of a Translation of Tacitus, &c. 8vo. pp. 436. 8s. Boards. Carpenter. 1807.

THE public attention will certainly be attracted to a translation of Sallust, by the same masterly hand which first made Tacitus perfectly intelligible and familiar to the English reader; and though the venerable author does not appear to have given the last finish to this work, nor to have designed it, in its present state, for the press, we think on the whole that no disappointment will be excited by a perusal of it. As, however, we freely stated our opinion, in 1793, that the former version was too paraphrastical, and of course wanted fidelity in representing the manner of the historian, so we must now add that this is a fault which has not been corrected in the execution of the latter task of the translator. Yet the natural good taste of Mr. Murphy has saved him from the grosser errors of obtruding his own unwarranted observations into the text, or implying a censure on his original by tedious interpolations and cumbrous ornaments; and if the energetic severity that marks the style of Sallust does not survive in the copy, his sentiments at least are in general faithfully preserved, and his facts are conveyed in an agreeable and gentleman-like English narrative.

A life of Sallust is prefixed, which appears not to be the work of Mr. Murphy, but bears the initials T.M. It follows the authority of LeClerc too implicitly; and as we have, in the preceding article, expressed our reasons for being dissatisfied with the grounds on which Dr. Stuart has attempted to justify the Historian from some of the most current imputations against him, we feel ourselves bound in justice to declare that the present biographer ap-

appears to have been betrayed into the opposite extreme of uncharitable and indiscriminate condemnation. It is curious to see the striking contrariety of their views; and as the one has drawn an argument from the supposed incompatibility of moral debasement and intellectual superiority, the other is determined to bear away the palm of absurdity by asserting as a maxim the converse of that extravagant proposition:

'We so seldom find the talents which make men admirable, united with those qualities of the heart which render them amiable, that many have supposed such perfections to be, in some degree, incompatible; have imagined, that refinement in individuals, as well as nations, is generally purchased at the expence of purity and innocence, and that the sun of knowledge too often corrupts while it illuminates. It cannot be denied, that the union of virtue and genius is a phenomenon almost as rare as it is glorious; and amply as human nature abounds in contrarieties, it does not produce a more degrading alloy, a more melancholy mixture, than that of talents with profligacy.—Such is the mortifying spectacle which the life of Sallust presents: alternately exciting our admiration and contempt by the vigour of his intellect and the corruption of his heart, he seems to have studied all that is excellent in theory, for the sole purpose of avoiding it in practice.'

The reader will naturally expect after such an opening that all the antient scandalous stories are retailed in this life, without examination or proof; for one of the charges, indeed, (p. vi.) no foundation at all appears to have been laid: yet we must repeat in this place that, where all that is known of the character is decisively bad, and there is much reason for suspecting the rectitude of all the rest, the truth or falsehood of one or two particular accusations can make no alteration in the general effect; and the impression produced by the two opposite pieces of biography is nearly the same.

In addition to this memoir, the volume contains Catiline's Conspiracy, Cicero's four orations on that occasion, and the War against Jugurtha, with a very few explanatory notes. The two epistles to Cæsar are not translated, though the author of the life does not appear to question their genuineness. This is one proof that Mr. Murphy had not completed his intended task. A stronger presumption arises in our minds from the common-place phrases which he has sometimes condescended to employ, often resembling the figures of vulgar poetry rather than the sober language of history. Such expressions might possibly occur at first to the memory of a man much versed in theatrical compositions, and he might set them down with the view of proceeding rapidly in his work: but we are persuaded that, on revising his translation for the public eye, the good sense of Mr. Murphy would

would have expunged them all. This is in fact the only blemish in the style, and it is not of frequent occurrence.

The length, to which our general remarks have extended in reviewing the large work of Dr. Stuart, precludes the necessity of our now doing more than producing one or two short specimens of the execution. The first shall be the description of the field of battle, after the defeat of Catiline, with which the history of the conspiracy concludes :

‘ When the battle was ended, the fierce and obstinate spirit that animated Catiline’s army, appeared manifest to view. The spot on which the soldier took his stand during the action, was covered with his body when he expired. A few, whom the prætorian cohort overpowered, were driven from their post, but they fell under honourable wounds. Catiline was found at a distance from his men, amidst heaps of slain. His breath had not quite left him : the same ferocity that distinguished him when living, was still visible in his countenance.

‘ It may be further observed, that in his whole army not one free citizen was taken prisoner, either during the battle, or after the defeat. Determined to give no quarter, they were prodigal of their own lives. Nor could the army of the commonwealth boast of having gained a cheap victory. They paid the price of their blood. The bravest among them were either slain in the action, or carried from the field covered with wounds. Numbers went from the camp to survey the field of battle, led either by curiosity, or in search of plunder. Employed in moving the dead bodies, they found among the slain a friend, a relative, or an intimate companion. Some discovered their particular enemies stretched on the ground. The impressions made by this melancholy scene were various : mixed emotions of joy and sorrow, regret and congratulation, prevailed throughout the army.’

The orations are perhaps rendered with as much spirit as is capable of being transfused into any representations of such originals. It is difficult to conjecture how they may affect an English reader who forms his first acquaintance with Cicero by means of them : but, in a comparative view, they must be allowed to be feeble and languid indeed !

Our second extract shall be from that passage in the Jugurthine war, in which the general character of Marius is first sketched, and allusion is made to his aspiring hopes :

‘ It happened in this juncture that Caius Marius, being at Utica, and performing a propitiatory sacrifice to the gods, was told by the priest who presided at the ceremony, that the omens which appeared portended all that was great and wonderful ; that whatever undertaking he resolved in his mind, he might pursue with thorough reliance upon the gods, and might try his fortune to the utmost risk, as success was sure to follow him throughout. The fact was, that, long before this time, Marius had conceived hopes of obtaining the consulship : for that high honour he had every requisite, except a

line of noble ancestors. Possessed of unremitting industry, distinguished by his probity, consummate master of military affairs, and undaunted in the field of battle, he added to those public virtues the strictest domestic economy, and a mind superior to the allurements of wealth or pleasure. The love of glory was his ruling passion. He was born at Arpinum, and remained in that city during his tender years. As soon as he was capable of bearing arms, he entered into the service. The eloquence of Greece had no charms for him, and the elegant refinements of the city passed unheeded. The art of war engaged his whole attention; and, by consequence, his natural genius soon displayed itself in full vigour. His early ambition made him aspire to the office of military tribune; and though, when he became a candidate, the people did not know him even by sight, yet his character stood so high, that he succeeded by the unanimous suffrage of all the tribes. From this beginning he opened his way to further advancement, and in every station discharged his duty with so much honour, that he was always deemed worthy of a higher post.

From this beginning, the intrigues of Marius are most acutely traced to their perfect developement, and they form a much more important and entertaining subject than the military operations in Africa. Indeed, we have frequently wondered that these two pieces have not been considered more exclusively as appertaining to the internal history of Rome, and placed accordingly in chronological order in the editions of Sallust. By means of a short connecting narrative, the Jugurthine War might be made an excellent introduction to the Conspiracy; and though this may be a matter of indifference to scholars, who must be supposed to make a point of studying every portion of the history with exactness, yet to those who are unacquainted with the language, and who read for the sake of the amusement to be drawn from the relation of events, the *effect* would be far more interesting and attractive.

Art. III. *Richmond Hill*; a descriptive and historical Poem; illustrative of the principal Objects viewed from that beautiful Eminence. Decorated with Engravings. By the Author of *Indian Antiquities*. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Miller. 1808.

THE Muses, who from time immemorial have taken up their residence on "the forked hill," seem to have inspired their votaries with a decided preference for elevated situations. They like to climb those heights, congenial to ethereal minds, from which they can look down on this nether world; and on which, while the eye traverses the expanded

expanded scene, the powers of the soul are awakened to rapturous extacy and varied reflection. Beings even of ordinary genius feel as it were allied to poetry, when taken to spots which command rich and extensive views; and the epithet which they usually employ, calling the landscape *striking*, is a proof of the justness of our observation. On real poets, they seem to produce something like inspiration; and hence, in antient and modern song, Hills have been singularly honoured by the Muse.

We need not specify the poems, in our own language, which have consecrated the fame of particular eminences: but perhaps none of those places which have been made the subject of verse is more beautiful, or more classical, than that which Mr. Maurice has now chosen to celebrate. For a descriptive and historical poem, *Richmond Hill* is indeed an attractive and prolific subject. No elevation in the empire perhaps displays so rich, so decorated, and so brilliant a landscape. It presents ideas of rural beauty the most exquisite, of taste the most cultivated, of commercial opulence, of patrician and of royal grandeur. We behold from it at once the seats of the muses, the villas of statesmen, and the palaces of kings. It excites recollections of the most interesting kind: all around is classic; and to almost every spot which is here washed by the silver Thames, some historic tale belongs. In the hand, therefore, of even common genius, we should expect some gratification from a poem intitled *Richmond Hill*; but from Mr. Maurice, to whose Muse we have often presented our commendation*, we anticipated much pleasure on the present occasion; and we are happy in adding that on the whole he has not disappointed us, though we must confess that we have not been fully satisfied. As a descriptive poet, and as an historian and antiquary, we have nothing to object to his execution: but, in his delineation of modern characters, he lavishes his praise with little judgment and discrimination, seeming more anxious to say that which would please than that which truly belonged to the persons eulogized. It would scarcely be delicate to enumerate all the instances to which we allude, and to the readers of the poem such a specification will be needless: but we cannot repress the general remark, calculated for the benefit of praise-bedaubing poets, that, when writers are *dealers by wholesale* in this article, it ceases to be complimentary, and reflects discredit on the object whence it proceeds, without advancing the reputation of the individuals to whom it is directed.

* See Rev. Vol. xxix. N. S. p. 419; Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 77. and other places.

In an appropriate preface, Mr. Maurice gives a concise history of Richmond; which village was antiently called *Sheen*, or *Sbene*, (as Camden tells us,) from its *shining* or splendor, and which in the time of Henry VII. received its present name. While this monarch was residing at the superb palace of *Sheen*, built by Henry V., it took fire, and was burnt to the ground: but it was soon rebuilt with greater magnificence by the victor at Bosworth field, who gave to it his own name of RICHMOND. Henry VIII. shewed it no preference: but Mr. M. infers the partiality of Charles I. to this spot, from his having made here the fine park called the New Park, eight miles in circumference, and surrounded it with a brick wall. During the civil distractions, the palace suffered considerably, and was intended for sale, the materials having been valued at 10,782l.: but, at the Restoration, Charles II. regained the possession of it, though probably in a dismantled condition; and, as he preferred the castle of Windsor, notwithstanding that this was the place of his education, Richmond became totally neglected.

After this period, (continues Mr. M.) this deserted palace fell rapidly into decay; the greatest part of it was taken down during the last century, and the site granted on a lease to various noblemen and gentlemen. Upon that site at present stand the Duke of Queensbury's, the Countess of Northampton's, and the elegant villa, late Sir Charles Asgill's, but now belonging to Wiltshere Keene, Esq. What remains of the old palace consists of the range of buildings called in the survey "the Wardrobe," and is let on lease to William Robertson, Esq. and Matthew Skinner, Esq. That adjoining the ancient gateway is tenanted by David Dundas, Esq. surgeon to his Majesty; and in the garden, of Mr. Skinner still exists the venerable yew-tree, of large dimensions, valued in the said survey at 10l.

Mr. M. also gives a concise account of the antient convent of *Sheen*; the revenues of which, at the Suppression, were estimated at 777l. 12s. 6d. These monuments of the grandeur and piety of our former monarchs furnish the poet with historical materials; while the various objects, which present themselves to the view, afford him an opportunity of advert-
ing to eminent characters of modern times.

The poem consists of two cantos, the first of which includes the scenes and objects that occur in the immediate vicinity of Richmond Hill; and the second, those which are surveyed at a distance. It must be obvious to every reader, that the matter of the first canto is more immediately consonant to the subject; and that in the second the poet throws his views beyond the range of objects discernible from Richmond Hill, in order to introduce delineations of the characters of Lord Spencer, Lord Nelson, Mr. Pitt, the
Bishop

Bishop of London, the Duke and late Duchess of Devonshire, Mr. Fox, and Messrs. Goldsmid and Hope.—The poem opens with considerable promise; and it displays an energy and a flow of versification not inferior to those of any of Mr. Maurice's former productions. The address to the hill contains some beautiful lines; and whoever has been on its terrace on a fine day will feel the force of the poet's metaphor, when he calls it a

' Rich diamond, sparkling in a golden vale.'

For the gratification of our readers, and as a specification of the powers of Mr. M.'s descriptive muse, we shall transcribe the passage :

*' Loveliest of hills that rise in glory round,
With swelling domes and glittering villas crown'd ;
For loftier though majestic Windsor tower,
The richer landscape's thine—the nobler bower.
Imperial seat of ancient grandeur, hail !
Rich diamond ! sparkling in a golden vale,
Or vivid emerald ! whose serener rays
Beam mildly forth with mitigated blaze,
And mid the splendours of an ardent sky,
With floods of verdant light refresh the eye :
Richmond ! still welcome to my longing sight,
Of a long race of kings the proud delight !
Of old the sainted sage thy groves admired,
When with devotion's hallow'd transports fired,
From Sheen's monastic gloom thy brow he sought,
And on its summit paused in raptur'd thought,
Stretch'd to the horizon's bound his ardent gaze,
And hymn'd aloud the great Creator's praise.*

*' And still where'er I turn my wond'ring eyes,
The dazzling visions like enchantment rise—
Fired with yon glowing orb's solstitial beam,
The kindling hills reflect the vivid gleam ;
Round their broad base, and down their verdant sides,
Full many a sparkling stream meand'ring glides,
And urging to the Thames its shining way
Flames on the view beneath the fervid ray.
Rich pastures here, and swelling lawns invite,
And all Arcadia charms the raptur'd sight ;
There bounteous Ceres waves her golden stores,
There all her blooming wealth Pomona pours.
The searching beams each darksome glen illumine,
And penetrate the grotto's deepest gloom ;
From lofty Windsor to Augusta's fanes
One burst of song, one blaze of glory reigns ;*

While, wafting from *la Plate's* * far distant shores,
 Brazilian gems, and bright Peruvian ores,
 Through green savannas, and embow'ring woods,
 Majestic rolls the sire of British floods !
 In whose bright mirror, cloudless and serene,
 The beauties of the blue expanse are seen.

' What radiant tints adorn th' enamel'd ground ;
 What rich Sabæan odours float around !
 For on this beauteous brow, where kindly dews
 And vernal gales their genial warmth diffuse,
 And in the spacious vale that spreads below,
 In many a fragrant garden taught to blow,
 Each costlier shrub the bounteous spring bestows,
 And every gorgeous flow'r that summer knows,
 Cull'd from each distant clime and ransack'd shore,
 Their mingled scents in rich profusion pour !—

' Hail to thee, lovely Richmond ! hail, once more ;
 Thy beauteous blossom'd vale and winding shore,
 Raptured I plunge amid thy inmost bow'rs,
 And range enamour'd all thy beds of flow'rs ;
 Kiss the dear earth, in youth with transport trod,
 And with my bosom press the fragrant sod.'

After this animated apostrophe to the Parnassus of Britain, the author weaves into his verse the names of those poets who have preceded him in describing its beauties and those of the surrounding region, viz. *Denham, Pope, Thomson, Collins, and Gray* ; and this part of the poem is executed with so much vigor and with such touches from the hand of a master, that at all events we must find a place for an extract from it :

' Rise, awful Shadows ! rise immortal throng,
 Burst Death's dark confines, and attest my song ;
 Oh ! crown'd with bays that shall for ever bloom,
 Amid your favour'd haunts the lyre resume ;
 The stream along whose beauteous banks ye rovd,
 The shrubs you planted and the bow'rs you loved,
 The hallow'd grottoes, where the Muse inspired,
 The solemn vistas, where the soul was fired,
 The welcome, well-known sounds rejoiced shall hail,
 And echo waft them down the gladden'd vale.

' Rise, thou ! who eldest of the tuneful quire,
 In yon rich valley waked the votive lyre !
 For still thy lovely Hill † its charms retains,
 But brightest shines in thy delightful strains.
 From its proud summit, on her soaring wings,
 Through heav'n's expanse thy Muse unbounded springs ;

* Mr. M. should have said *La Plata*, or the Plate ; omitting, in the former case, the expletive *far*, to accommodate the metre. *Rev.*

† See Denham's "Cooper's Hill."

On all beneath her beams of glory throws,
And in thy song the whole horizon glows.

‘ Rise, Pope! sublime in Homer’s classic rage!
For all his spirit warms thy nervous page;
Nor with less fire, for *trampled* virtue bold;
Thy fervid strain of manly satire roll’d—
But who shall Windsor’s bow’ry pride display,
In numbers sweet as thy mellifluous lay,
Like plaintive Eloise the passions move,
Now warm to rapture and now melt to love!
Awed by thy daring flight, th’ admiring Muse,
Trembling, through Twitnam’s groves her course pursues:
For who, with rival wing, shall hope to soar
Where thy bold eagle-genius tower’d before?’

We must pass over the subsequent tribute to Thomson and Collins, and shall copy a part of the delineation of Gray; to whose genius Mr. M. ascribes distinguished pre-eminence:

‘ Grandeur and beauty deck thy nervous lines,
And all the master in the portrait shines!
Rous’d by thy magic harp’s inspiring sound,
The genius kindles and the pulses bound;
Fancy beams forth with renovated fires,
And Virtue with diviner rage aspires.’

In the lines on Sion-house, the magnificent seat of the Duke of Northumberland, the poet attempts a compliment which is forced and out of place;

‘ Rich marbles—breathing sculptures—all declare
With matchless taste, an ADAM *has been there.*’

By this couplet, the ignorant reader would be led to conclude that the rich marbles, &c. at Sion-house had been brought there under the direction of Mr. Adam. — “Umbrageous Ham,” where GAY meditated, and Ham-house, which formerly belonged to Duke Lauderdale, and where our amorous monarch Charles II. spent many pleasureable hours, might have afforded much more matter for the poet than he has drawn from them.

The historical retrospect which introduces our antient monarchs, who built the magnificent palace and monastery of *Sheen*, occupies a considerable portion of the first canto; which terminates with an affecting tale, called the Maid of Richmond-Hill, said (and, as we believe, truly,) to be founded on fact.

As we have already observed, the second canto consists chiefly of complimentary matter; among which are elegiac lines sacred to the memory of Mr. Pitt. Here the poet exerts himself to express the high opinion which he entertained of

of the genius, fortitude, and eloquence of this celebrated Statesman ; and of his death Mr. M. says,

‘ Europe’s loud voice laments her Saviour gone,
And kings, the bulwark of their tott’ring throne.’

The poet thus apostrophises the deceased Minister :

‘ Enlighten’d STATESMAN! whose expanded soul
Pervaded Europe to the frozen pole ;—
Her empires in thy mighty balance weigh’d,
And propt the sinking with thy pow’rful aid ;
Whose tow’ring, bold, and comprehensive view
Grasp’d all Locke thought, and letter’d Bacon knew ;
What daring pencil, what unbounded verse
Shall the proud story of thy fame rehearse ?’

This animated elegiac tribute concludes with an address to Mr. Pitt’s spirit in the bright abodes of bliss, intreating him to ‘ guard the Empire which he *died to save.*’ How far the voice of impartial history will confirm the testimony of the poet respecting the profound wisdom of Mr. Pitt’s political views, we shall not here inquire : but to eulogize him as having *died for his country* is an extravagance of fiction which, as we find by a note subjoined, not even his friend the Bishop of Lincoln could tolerate.

When Mr. Maurice proceeds to include Mr. Fox in his obituary, the talents, erudition, and philanthropy of this great, clear-sighted, and amiable man are mentioned with appropriate epithets : but as a Statesman he is not exhibited ; so that, in surveying this portrait, we thought of the strollers in a barn who undertook the exhibition of the play of Hamlet, omitting, *for particular reasons*, the part of Hamlet himself !

How far the Duke of Clarence, who has never had a naval command since he was a young captain, will approve Mr. Maurice’s notice of him in this poem, is also a point which we shall not undertake to settle. His R. H. is introduced as

‘ Clarence, his scepter’d Sire’s, his Country’s pride !
Her boast on land, *her bulwark on the tide.*’

We must now, however, take our leave of Mr. Maurice’s present poetic undertaking, which cannot fail to confer credit on him as a votary of the Muses ; though we do not admit such rhymes as *perfume* and *doom*, which is uniformly though erroneously pronounced by Mr. M. *doom* ; *joins* and *shine* ; *trod* and *abode* ; *pains* and *charms* ; and we find in one place *bid* for *beds*, (p. 82.) Why Mr. M. should call the Wandle *neglected*, we know not : it is mentioned by Pope in his “ Windsor Forest”, as “ the blue transparent Vandalis ;” and on stream, considering its length is more occupied by human industry.

ART. IV. *Memoirs of the Rise and Progress of the Royal Navy.*
 By Charles Derrick, Esq. of the Navy Office. 4to. pp. 334.
 11. 11s. 6d. Boards. Black and Parry, &c.

TO a maritime state, its naval power and improvement must ever form an object of high moment; and though it must be most essential to discuss not only the means of sustaining, but those also of advancing, the degree of perfection to which its navy may have attained, yet it will always be curious and interesting to trace backwards the steps which have been already trodden in its progress. In most inquiries, indeed, we derive both a stimulus to new attainments and a variety of suggestions for effecting them, from contemplating the efforts of our predecessors, the ideas which led them on, and the means which in their hands were found either beneficial or abortive; and perhaps the caution, which should be learnt from failure, is scarcely less valuable than the incitement which is generally created by success.

Of the vital importance of the British Navy, in times like these, it were almost superfluous to speak, and it may therefore be equally unnecessary to apply our preceding remark to the present volume: which conveys information that will be very acceptable, on the subject to which it is devoted, with a number of facts and documents that are desirable in themselves though somewhat dry in the detail.

Mr. Derrick observes in his preface that, if the History of the Navy were divided into two parts, the latter should commence with the reign of Henry VIII., before whose time there was, strictly speaking, no Royal Navy. It was that monarch who first established docks for the Royal Navy; previously to which, ships for the public service were (with few exceptions) supplied by the sea ports, and sometimes hired from foreigners. Henry VII., however, caused a large ship to be built at the national expence, which was named the *Great Harry*, and cost about 14000l; and he may therefore be said to have laid the foundation of a standing Naval force: but Henry VIII., besides his establishment of docks, has another claim to be regarded as the founder of the present navy. 'An Admiralty, and Navy Office, were constituted, and Commissioners appointed by him, regular salaries were settled for the Admirals, Vice-Admirals, Captains, and Seamen, and the sea service in his time became a distinct and regular profession.' The first Royal Dock was formed at Woolwich, and was called by Camden the *Mother Dock*.

The principal object of Mr. Derrick, in this publication, is 'to shew the state of the Navy, as to the number, tonnage, &c.

&c. of the several classes of the ships and vessels at different periods ; when the naval force was promoted, neglected, or, at least, not augmented ; and at what periods improvements in ship building were introduced into it.' He begins his *Memoirs* with some account of the *Great Harry* built by Henry VII., after which he enters on the succeeding reign. The principal part of the work is formed by a collection of lists of ships, and statements of the condition of the Navy, at different times ; which are arranged chronologically, and thus shew the progressive increase of the British Navy. Three lists of the king's ships are collected by Mr. D. for the reign of Henry the VIIIth : one of them, which is for the year 1546 and is inserted in the Appendix, contains information of the tonnage and number of men borne in each ship, but none of the lists inserted in this reign mention the number of guns. Mr. D. has given an extract from a report which was made by commissioners appointed to inquire into the state of the Navy in 1618 ; in which, taking a retrospective view of it as far back as the time of Henry VIII. they say, that Monarch, ' making use of Italian shiprights, and encouraging his own people to build strong ships of war to carry great ordnance, did by that means establish a puissant Navy, which in the end of his reign consisted of 71 vessels, whereof 30 were ships of burthen, and contained in all 10550 tons : two were galleys, and the rest were small barks and row barges, from 80 tons downwards to 15 tons, which served in rivers and for landing of men.' To this extract, the author adds : ' I have seen a MS. which mentions, that in this reign an act was passed to encourage merchants to build ships for their service, fit for men of war, enacting that such ships should be exempted from certain duties, and that the owners should receive from the king, when his service called for them, twelve shillings per ton a month.'

Three lists also of the king's ships in the reign of Edward VIth are given, two of which contain the number of guns and men. The lists in this and the preceding reign are taken from *Pepys's Miscellanies*, and the *Archæologia*. ' A memorial was graciously received by King Edward VI., not long before his decease, wherein methods were proposed for increasing the number of seamen in his dominions, and for preventing the carrying on a trade here in foreign bottoms. There are notices of other projects of the like nature in his own diary, which gives reason to suppose that, if he had lived, he would have been careful of maritime affairs.' In the following reign, the Navy greatly diminished.

For "the days of good Queen Bess," several accounts of the state of the Navy are here collected: but the list of ships belonging to her Majesty, which served under the command of the Lord High Admiral in 1588 against the Spanish Armada, contains, besides the names, only the tonnage and number of men. Lediard, in his *Naval History of England*, has given, from a MS. in the king's library, the names of the commanders of the different ships. Mr. D. likewise in a note says: 'I have seen a MS. stating that the following ships carried the guns, as against their names expressed, at the time of the Armada.' Surely the author should have been more particular in his manner of mentioning the manuscripts which he has consulted, and from which he has given information, than merely to say that he has seen them, which is no guide for reference. In the extract introduced from the manuscript last mentioned, it appears that the *Triumph*, the largest ship in the English Fleet, was of 1100 tons burthen, and carried 42 guns; while the *Arc Royal*, of 800 tons, carried 55 guns. The number of men in the *Triumph* was 500; in the *Arc Royal*, 425.

Mr. D. has continued a series of statements of the British Naval force down to the year 1805, and has added an Appendix in which we find much curious information. No. 1. of this supplement is, 'An account of the Periods when the different Dock Yards were established.'—No. 2. 'An account of the average number of Shipwrights borne in the Dock Yards in each year of Queen Ann's War.'—No. 3. 'An Account of the number of Shipwrights in the Dock Yards on the 14th of January in each year, from 1744 to 1805 inclusive.'—In comparing the numbers in these lists, it may at first excite some surprise to find that, in the year 1710, 2574 Shipwrights were employed in the Dock Yards, and in the year 1805 not more than 3193; an increase which bears a very small proportion to the augmentation of the Naval force, but which affords a proof of the great improvements in workmanship, in machinery, and in the construction of vessels. Besides the superior neatness in contrivance and execution, which practice and experience always produce, the quantity of unnecessary work in the construction of ships has been continually diminishing to the present day. The account of a ship named the *Sovereign of the Sea*, built in 1637, and the largest which up to that time had ever been accomplished in England, exhibits a curious instance of the quantity of labour then bestowed on mere ornament. It is thus described in a publication of that time by Thomas Heywood:

' This

• This famous vessel was built at Woolwich, in 1637.—She was in length by the keel 128 feet or thereabout, within some few inches; her main breadth 48 feet; in length, from the fore-end of the beak-head to the after-end of the stern, *à prors ad puppin*, 232 feet; and in height, from the bottom of her keel to the top of her lanthorn, 76 feet: bore five lanthorns, the biggest of which would hold ten persons upright; had three flush decks, a forecastle, half-deck, quarter-deck, and round-house.—

Her lower tier had . . 30 ports for Cannon and Demi-Cannon,

Middle tier. 30 for Culverines and Demi ditto,

Third tier 26 for other Ordnance,

Forecastle 12,

and two half-decks have 13 or 14 ports more within-board, for murdering pieces, besides 10 pieces of chace-ordnance forward and 10 right aft, and many loop-holes in the cabins for musquet-shot.—She had eleven anchors, one of 4400 pounds weight.—She was of the burthen of 1637 tons. She was built by Peter Pett, Esq. under the direction of his father, Captain Phineas Pett*, one of the Principal Officers of the Navy. She hath two galleries besides, and all of most curious carved work, and all the sides of the Ship carved with trophies of artillery and types of honour, as well belonging to sea as land, with symbols appertaining to navigation; also their two sacred majesties badges of honour; arms with several angels holding their letters in compartments, all which works are gilded over, and no other colour but gold and black.—One tree, or oak, made four of the principal beams, which was 44 feet, of strong serviceable timber in length, 3 feet diameter at the top, and 10 feet at the stub or bottom.

• “Upon the stem head a Cupid, or Child bridling a Lion; upon the bulk-head, right forward, stand six statues, in sundry postures; these figures represent Concilium, Cura, Consamen, Vis, Virtus, Victoria.—Upon the hamers of the water are four figures, Jupiter, Mars, Neptune, Eolus; on the stern, Victory, in the midst of a frontispiece; upon the beak-head siteth King Edgar on horseback, trampling on seven kings.”

From some imperfection in the shape and dimensions of the frame, this ship carried guns of unequal calibres on the same deck: while the dimensions seem to have been quaintly contrived that the tonnage might correspond with the year in which she was built. The expensive decorations of this vessel,

* Mr. Pett says of himself; “During my attendance at Court, in 1604, as his Grace’s (the Prince of Wales’s) Captain of his Ship,” &c. alluding to the small Vessel he had built in 1604 for the Prince to amuse himself in above London-Bridge, and to make himself acquainted with Shipping; which vessel Mr. Pett brought to Lambeth from Chatham, on 18th March, and a few days after was sworn one of the Prince’s Servants.—Probably this occasioned him to go to sea two or three times in the Prince’s own Ship, the Prince Royal, as we find by his own account he did.”

it is said, increased the complaints against ship-money in that reign.

Mr. Derrick's Appendix affords a variety of other particulars respecting the building and equipment of ships of the Royal Navy at different periods. Table XXIII. is 'An Account shewing the Dimensions established, or proposed to be established, at different times, for building of ships.' It shews the length, breadth, and depth, with the burthen in tons, established for the various classes of ships of the Navy at several times, from the year 1677 to 1745. In 1677, the established tonnage for a ship of 100 guns was 1550 tons: but in 1745, the dimensions had been increased, and 2000 tons became the established burthen for such a ship; and in 1789, for the same number of guns, the burthen allowed was 2220 tons.

The building and management of ships have been advancing for some centuries in a continual course of improvement; and it is reasonable to believe that they are yet considerably distant from the perfection to which they will arrive: though vanity, on every new discovery, is apt to exclaim, 'this is complete.' The following passage from Sir Walter Raleigh's discourse on the Invention of Shipping is historical of the progress in his days:

'In my own time, the shape of our English Ships hath been greatly bettered.—It is not long since the striking of the topmast hath been devised.—Together with the Chain-pump, we have lately added the Bonnet and Drabler*.—To the Courses we have devised Studding Sails, Top-gallant-Sails, Sprit-sails and Top-sails.—The weighing of Anchors by the Capstan is also new. We have fallen into consideration of the length of cables†, and by it we resist the malice of the greatest winds that can blow.—We have also raised our second Decks.'

No. 24. of the Appendix is an Estimate of the Expences of building and of the different parts of the Equipment, in the year 1789, for ships of all rates.

Having given our readers some information of the principal matters contained in Mr. Derrick's *Memoirs of the Rise and Progress of the British Navy*, which forms a kind of History of Modern Ship Building, we shall add that we regard it as an useful publication; being of opinion that collections of facts, on this important branch of maritime science, tend much to its advancement. It is proper, however, in acknowledging the

* The Bonnet and Drabler were Sails.

† The Cables before this are said to have been only 78 fathoms long.

merit of Mr. D.'s labour, to mention that in our opinion the price of his volume is liable to objection; and that some of the tables are printed in too open a manner, especially those in which the reader is obliged to turn over a leaf for the continuation, when the whole table might conveniently have been contained either in one page, or in two pages opposed to each other: for it greatly assists the attainment of a clear and comprehensive knowledge of a subject, to have the whole exhibited at one view.

ART. V. *The Rise, Fall, and future Restoration of the Jews.* To which are annexed, Six Sermons, addressed to the Seed of Abraham by several evangelical Ministers. Concluding with an elaborate Discourse, by the late Dr. Hunter, entitled, "The Fullness of the Gentiles coeval with the Salvation of the Jews." 8vo. pp. 260. 5s. Boards. Button.

FOR the warm interest which some Christians take in the dispersed state of the Jews, and for the zealous efforts which they display for the conversion of these unbelievers to the faith of Christ, none of the present descendants of Abraham appear to feel the smallest gratitude. Our mode of addressing them excites not their attention; and publications of the nature of that which is now before us, as far as they respect the Jews, are of little more value than mere waste paper. Is it pride in them, or is it ignorance in us as to the real ground of their objection to the gospel, that produces this effect? They who wish sincerely to meet them in fair argument should endeavour to become acquainted with the reasons which the Jews allege for rejecting christianity, and for adhering to their antient faith; and had these *evangelical* ministers pursued this course, they would, in their sermons professedly addressed to this people, have introduced other matters of discussion than those which now occur. For the purpose of ingratiating themselves in the good opinion of the Jews, it is artfully endeavoured in the preliminary dissertation to remove from their ancestors the reproach of *spoiling* the Egyptians, by alleging that, 'as the Hebrews' due wages had been denied them, God, the supreme judge and proprietor of all, ordered them to ask a vast deal of precious things from the Egyptians, and carry them off:' but, unfortunately for this well-intended apology, the fact of the denial of wages by the Egyptians does not appear in the history. The writer might wish, also, to compliment the fortitude of the Jews in resisting persecution, by giving the air of authentic narrative to the apocryphal story of the seven brethren; by
lamenting

lamenting the real hardships which this singular people have suffered in different countries ; and by stating their present number at 3,000,000, of which one million are said to reside in the Turkish empire ; 300,000 in Persia, China, India on the east and west of the Ganges, or Tartary ; and 1,700,000 in the west of Europe, in Africa, and America.

We apprehend, however, that no apology for or flattering representation of them, as a people, will dispose the Jews to enter into the kind of argument with which they are presented in these discourses. They are told in one sermon that, 'without the shedding of blood, there is no remission,' and that, consistently with their own records, they must acknowledge the necessity of a vicarious sacrifice : but will this passage, which is so often quoted from the epistle to the Hebrews, satisfy the Jews, who will point to Numbers xxxi. 50. where other things besides blood are mentioned as offerings for making atonement for the soul ? When, moreover, in another sermon, they are informed that 'the true Messiah shall take the place of the guilty,'—that their Messiah, as a temporal deliverer, 'had no *redundant merit* to impart to others,'—and that '*Holiness, which is the immense beauty of the Godhead,*' required mercy to be displayed to sinners in a *holy manner*, by the substitution of a victim of immense dignity and value,—could the preacher expect that an unconverted Hebrew would listen to such *evangelical* theology ? Do we read, either in the Old or the New Testament, of *redundant merit* ? When an infinitely perfect Being acts in a perfect manner, does he display any redundant merit ? If Holiness be synonymous with Justice or Rectitude, can it permit the actual substitution of innocence for guilt ? Would not the Jew, if he were acquainted with the N. T., quote Matthew vii. 17. to prove that, when Christ is said to suffer for sinners, and to bear their infirmities, the Apostles never meant to convey the idea of his being placed in the situation of the sick and the sinful ? We must despair of bringing the Jews to listen to Christianity, when such doctrines are stated as forming its prominent features. Indeed, by the account given in the concluding discourse by the late Dr. Hunter, we are justified in expressing our surprise at the publication of these discourses ; for that preacher expressly declares that 'the attempts which have been made for the conversion of the Jews, both by preaching and writing, are premature ; that all scripture seems to remove that desirable event to a very great distance ; and that no providential appearances support the expectation of a speedy change in the mind of that people.' Dr. Hunter does not adopt the opinion of Dr. Priestley

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and Mr. Faber, who have ventured to predict that the restoration of the Jews and the conversion of the Gentiles were events which would occur before the termination of the present century; and surely, when we consider the slow march of truth, we must think that Dr. Hunter has most reason on his side. ‘Melancholy (says he) and mortifying calculations have been made to shew the limited progress and extension of Christianity. The human race has been, by some, divided into thirty parts, of which five only, they allege, are professed Christians; six are Mahometans, and no less than nineteen are Idolators. If this be any thing like the truth, O how far is “the fulness of the Gentiles” from being come in; and, consequently, how remote is the salvation of all Israel!’ Dr. H., however, regards the prophecies as pointing to the actual return of the Jews at a future period to their own land; and he confesses himself indebted for a considerable part of the proofs and illustrations which his sermon contains, to Dr. Whitby’s Appendix to Chapter XI. of the Epistle to the Romans.

The preliminary dissertation, intitled ‘the Rise, Fall, and future Restoration of the Jews,’ is more interesting than the sermons which we have thus briefly noticed. It is divided into six chapters, including a general history of the Jews,—a particular account of their state at the birth of Christ,—a narrative of their sufferings and of the changes which they have experienced in England,—facts and anecdotes relative to their present condition in France and Germany,—a statement of the sentiments and sects of modern Jews,—and the views of eminent divines respecting their future conversion to Christ and restoration to their own land.

Perhaps, the following remarks will account for the changes which the character of the Jews has sustained. Man is the creature of circumstances, and he is moulded by the laws and institutions to which he is subject. If he be denied the rights of a citizen, his exertions must be confined within circumscribed channels. When the Jews enjoyed all the privileges of a nation, they were agricultural: but, when they became dispersed, and in consequence were unprotected by laws, their attention was restricted to the acquisition of that kind of property which was most capable of concealment and removal. If at times we censure, we should also commiserate them, and admit that the nations of the world have not assisted them in the cultivation of social virtue:

‘No nation (says the writer) was ever so much attached to agriculture as the Jews in Palestine: it was only for a short period that they

they engaged in commerce, when Solomon sent his ships from Asiongaber [Ezion-geber] to Ophir. Since their dispersion no people were ever so averse from agriculture, because they were every where denied the privilege of acquiring and cultivating land, or exercising arts and trades. Commerce was therefore the only road left open to them, especially retail-trade, which is within the reach of every one, and which, offering only small and precarious profits, produces a rapacious disposition. But the riches which the Jews acquired by commerce soon awakened the cupidity of their enemies, who plundered and banished, hanged or burnt them; and to fill up the measure of their sufferings, even pretended to justify themselves by calumniating the victims of their crimes. The dread of tyranny suggested to the Jews the invention of bills of exchange and insurance; and they often eluded the violence and rapacity of their enemies by being enabled to transfer and transport their property in a letter or a pocket-book; and thus they and the Armenians became the brokers and bankers of the world.

‘ The character of the Jews is the effect of their education; like that of the Negroes, the Parias, the Gypsies, and, in a word, of all men.

‘ Instead of requiring so much of men whom we have almost forced to become vicious, is there not, on the contrary, reason to be surprised that among the Jews we still meet with so many persons who, surmounting by their courage all the obstacles which persecution and public opinion oppose to them, have acquired virtues and learning. Freind assures us, in his History of Medicine, that in the middle ages they were at the head of that profession. Medicine has indeed at all times, and in every country, been cultivated among them; and at present they may boast of many eminent physicians. It is to the Jews of Toledo we are indebted for the Alphonsine Tables, drawn up in the thirteenth century, and the finest monument of astronomy during that age of darkness. If we consult the Dictionaries of Bartoloci, Imbonati, Rossi, &c. we shall find a crowd of distinguished men among the Hebrews, whose names are transmitted with eclat to posterity:—Maimonides, Kimki, Jarchi, Aben Ezra, Juda Levi, Elias the Levite, Abarbanel the Republican, Zacutus, Orodio, Menasseh Ben-Israel, Mendez, author of a tragedy intitled *Athalie*, Mendelsohn, Pinto, Marcou, Hers. Bloch, Vezelize, &c.

‘ Virtues and talents generally follow in the train of liberty; and this is the reason why the Jewish communities in Holland have produced so many enlightened men.’

A more enlarged policy seems to be extending to this people, and by this measure they are likely to become good members of society. The advantages which they enjoy in France are considerable; and many learned men have there arisen among them. In Germany, it is stated, science is rapidly advancing among the Jews; which is more likely to demolish their ridiculous superstitions, and their absurd attachment to the reveries and “old wives’ fables” of the Talmud, than any

other means. The most happy effects, we are told, are expected to result from the schools established for the Jews; and the author, after having adverted to some degrading and injurious restrictions to which this people are still subject on some parts of the continent, and their unwearied endeavours to be admitted to the full participation of civil rights, liberally expresses a hope that the time is not far distant when civil toleration will invite them to enjoy the rights and to fulfil the duties of citizens. Perhaps the Jews, if they were consulted in the affair, would prefer to be invested like other subjects with the full privileges of citizens in the rich and fertile countries of Europe, than to be sent back to the barren plains of Palestine. Indeed, if the ten tribes are still in existence, and are to be added to the three millions above mentioned, Palestine would not be able to support them, even if it recovered its pristine fertility. Of this fact we are certain, that the Jews will not be disposed to offer warm acknowledgements to those Christians who manifest a vehement solicitude for their future restoration to their ancient land, but are unwilling to allow them the privileges of a nation in any other region than Palestine.

ART. VI. *Transactions of the Parisian Sanhedrim, or Acts of the Assembly of Israelitish Deputies of France and Italy, convoked at Paris by an Imperial and Royal Decree, dated May 30, 1806. Translated from the Original published by M. Diogene Tama, with a Preface and illustrative Notes by F. D. Kirwan, Esq. 8vo. pp. 334. 8s. Boards. Taylor, Hatton-Garden. 1807.*

SOME years ago, a publication of this nature would have excited general attention, and the circumstance to which it relates would have been regarded by the whole christian world as a most wonderful phenomenon: but we have been accustomed to such a series of changes and alterations, since the French Revolution, following each other in rapid succession, that nothing seems to surprise us, and very striking events are passed over with as little reflection as the most trivial incidents. With the political, also the religious and moral state of Europe appears to be revolutionizing; and a new impulse will probably be imparted to the social principles and feelings of mankind. Religious intolerance will in time be discarded by governments as incompatible with sound legislation; and as the Emperors of Rome conferred "the freedom of the city on all the Gods of mankind," so christian princes will be convinced of the policy of extending the full privileges

privileges of citizenship to all of every religion, who can give proper security to the state for the maintenance of public order and social morality. The chief magistrate will find his interest promoted, and the energies of his empire increased, not by making himself the head of a sect, but by extending his protection to every system of religion and form of worship, by which his subjects are trained to habits of piety, virtue, and subordination; and he will be pleased with reflecting that, though different churches vary from each other in their creeds and ceremonials, they are all animated by a common principle of loyalty, and all blend with their devotions fervent prayers for his happiness and the prosperity of his government.

We see in that singular character, who by a series of brilliant victories has placed himself on the throne of France, and even on that of the continent of Europe, an extent of political wisdom not less remarkable than his military talents; and while we reprobate his insatiable ambition, his cruelties, and his enormities, we must ascribe to him the genius of a profound statesman, and acknowledge that he is alive to the true secret of uniting and consolidating the heterogeneous particles of a vast empire. *Fas est et ab hoste doceri*; and if we can learn any thing even from our most inveterate enemy, let us not despise the lesson. He has set an example respecting the conduct of government towards the different religions of an empire, which merits no common praise. Actuated by the deepest policy, he affects a system of unprecedented liberality, by spreading the protecting ægis of the state alike over persons of every sect; including under its vast circumference even the Jewish people, so long and so unfeelingly proscribed in all the countries of Europe, and admitting them to a full participation of civil privileges with the rest of his numerous subjects. This feature of his policy ought not to be slightly passed over: but, if we love our country, we should appreciate its value, and calculate its effects. We are steering indeed a different course: but are we or is our enemy guided by the chart and compass of political sagacity? A striking contrast is presented by Great Britain and France on the treatment of religion by the state. While in this island, celebrated and justly celebrated for the part which it has acted in the dissemination of the principles of civil and religious liberty, one denomination of christians is averse from the admission of another to a joint participation of civil rights, the new government of France is inviting the long degraded House of Israel to participate with the followers of Christ in the most complete enjoyment of political privileges. This

offer is something more than a mere compliment. Measures are concerted and a plan is formed to give respectability to the Jews, to establish their worship, and to make their incorporation with the French Empire permanent and advantageous. An assembly of Israelitish deputies from the several departments of France and Italy is convened; and a number of questions are proposed, and answers are required, that from these answers the public with whom they are about to be amalgamated might learn, whether any feature existed in the institution or religion of Moses which was adverse to the perfect organisation of the social state, and which of course ought to prevent its professors from being enrolled in the list of French citizens. These questions do not refer to such dogmas of religion as are of a speculative nature, but merely concern regulations that affect the condition of man in society. The Jews are desired to explain their principles respecting Marriage, Divorce, Patriotism, and civil obedience; to declare in what light they consider Frenchmen who are not of their cast; what kind of Police-jurisdiction the Rabbis have among them; what are their notions of Usury; and whether there be any professions by which they are excluded by their law?

To these queries, very explicit and satisfactory replies are returned. The Jews, indeed, admit the propriety of this species of state-interference with religion; they acknowledge that, in order 'to prevent danger, reason and the great law of public interest require that each established religion should give to the sovereign a responsible pledge, and the means of super-inspection;' and this pledge they very willingly tender, assuring the Government 'that their religion makes it their duty to consider the law of the prince as the supreme law in civil and political matters.' The hatred and malignity of Christians towards the Israelitish nation have prevented them from doing justice to the simple and unoffending system which this people have uniformly professed, and which is nothing more than *pure Theism with a ceremonial*. It is the national religion from which the Gospel emanated, and the records of which form the basis of its evidence. We need not, therefore, remark that nothing can be found in Judaism which precludes its most ample toleration:

'A Pagan having consulted the Rabbi Hillel on the Jewish religion, and wishing to know in a few words in what it consisted, Hillel thus answered him: "Do not to others what thou shouldst not like to have done to thyself. This," said he, "is all our religion; the rest are only consequences of this principle."

'A religion whose fundamental maxims are such—a religion which
makes

makes a duty of loving the stranger—which enforces the practice of social virtues,—must surely require that its followers should consider their fellow-citizens as brethren.’

From attending, however, to the curious discussion of the Parisian Sanhedrim, it will be seen that by the refusal of toleration to the Jews, and by the unjust and cruel conduct of nations to them since their dispersion, their character underwent a total change, and became entirely different from that into which it was the object of their great legislator to mould them.

In the answers to the interrogatories respecting Usury, it appears by the admission of the Jews themselves that it was ‘the intention of Moses to make his people a nation of husbandmen. For a long time after him, and though Idumea was at no great distance from the sea shores inhabited by the Tyrians, the Sidonians, and other nations possessing shipping and commerce, we do not see the Hebrews much addicted to trade: all the regulations of their lawgiver seemed designed to divert their attention from commerce.’ Yet, in spite of this tendency of their law, the barbarous policy hitherto pursued by christian states induced them to reject agricultural labour, and to confine themselves to barter.

To the question, ‘Are there professions which the law of the Jews forbids them from exercising?’ the answer is ‘there are none: on the contrary, the Talmud expressly declares that “the father who does not teach a profession to his child, rears him up to be a villain.”—With such a principle, had they been treated with political justice they must have proved useful citizens.

No people can be more grateful nor more extravagant in their expression of thanks for this their civil regeneration, (or *redemption* as they call it,) than are the Jews of France and Italy on the present occasion. They call France ‘a second promised land;’ and as for Bonaparte, he is complimented as never mortal was before either by Jew or Gentile. He is called the hero which Providence has sent in mercy to regenerate France,—a second Solomon,—the conqueror of the world and the model of Sovereigns,—the mortal according to God’s own heart,—the living image of the Divinity, &c. In one place, indeed, their adulation to the French Emperor borders on absolute profaneness; and on a profaneness which we should have supposed the Jews, of all other people, would have been least disposed to commit, even in the paroxysms of their joy. When they appointed a solemn festival to celebrate his birth-day, they inform us that in their temple ‘the name of Jchovah, the cyphers and arms of *Napoleon* and of *Josephine*,
L 4 shone

shone on every side.' One of the sermons, on Prov. xxix. 21, preached to the Israelitish deputies on this occasion, thus commences :

" Scarcely were my eye-lids opened to the dawn of this day, when my mind was assailed by the crowded images of the victories of Montenotte, of the laurels of Marengo blended with palms, of the achievements and triumphs of Austerlitz. It is not then a vain illusion, did I exclaim ! A supernatural genius has really appeared on earth, surrounded with greatness and with glory infinite. *I saw in the night visions, and behold one like the son of man came, and there was given him dominion, and glory, and a kingdom.* Daniel, chap. vii. verses 13 and 14.

" Already this day of joy and of universal festivity arises in renewed splendour, marked in indelible characters by predominant stars ; pure and serene above all days ; day for ever blessed, in which Heaven sent unto the earth the great NAPOLEON enthroned in glory, the restorer of piety, of justice, of good order, the father of nations, the friend, yea, the sincere friend, of peace ; the only title dear to his heart, and the most grateful to his subjects."

The odes and hymns annexed are in the same high flowery Eastern strain. M. Baruch Cerf-Berr, one of the Deputies, speaks more to the point in his reflections, and explains the object of the French Ruler :

" Catholics and Lutherans, Jews and Calvinists, are considered by His Majesty as children of the same father : he leaves to the Supreme Being the right of calling them to account for their opinions ; they enjoy in safety the same rights and protection, and share equally his paternal attention ; His Majesty acknowledges no difference among them, except that which results from virtue and from talents."

M. Furtado, the president, in his address to the Synagogues of Europe for convoking the Great Sanhedrim, more particularly adverts to the happy consequences likely to result to the Jews from the new order of things :

" Since our dispersion, numberless changes have manifested the vicissitudes of human affairs : nations have been successfully overwhelmed by nations, and all have been afterwards mingled and heaped on each other ; we alone have withstood the torrent of ages and of revolutions.

" Every thing seemed to announce for us, in Europe, a happier state, and a less precarious existence. But it was only a distant though cheering prospect : to see those hopes realized, it was necessary that, from the midst of public tempests, from the tumultuous fluctuations of an immense people, one of those powerful men, round whom nations rally from an instinct of self-preservation, should, conducted by Providence, raise his head above the roaring elements.

" This benevolent and protecting genius wishes to do away every humiliating distinction between us and his other subjects. His
piercing

piercing eye has discovered, in our Mosaic code, those principles of strength and of stability by which it has stood the test of ages, and which formerly gave our fathers that patriarchal simplicity, still an object of veneration in present times, and that heroical character so glowingly portrayed in our history.

“ In his wisdom he has thought it consonant to his paternal views to allow the convocation of a *GREAT SANHEDRIM* in Paris. The functions of this body, and the objects it is to have in view, are clearly laid down in the eloquent discourse delivered by the Commissioners of His Imperial and Royal Majesty. We send it to you, dear Brethren, that you may yourselves judge of the spirit in which it is written, and see that the sole object in view is to bring us back to the practice of our ancient virtues, and to preserve our holy religion in all its purity.”

The plan which establishes the regulations of religious worship among the Jews of France and Italy, and its internal police, manifest the contrivance of Bonaparte in forming the Jewish people, whom he has adopted, according to his military system. To the reflecting reader, indeed, this volume will present a wide field for speculation; and the satisfaction which the Jews express at their emancipation must be gratifying to all liberal men, who, from this event, may fairly augur the improved condition and social morality of that long despised and persecuted race.

ART. VII. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Essex.* Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By the Secretary of the Board. 8vo. 2 Vols. 11. 1s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1807.

THIS is the first County Report which has swelled into two volumes, and the circumstance of its having passed through several hands before it reached the public eye will in some measure account for its unusual bulk. The ingenious Secretary informs us that the county of Essex was originally surveyed by Messrs. Greggs; that Mr. Vancouver was next employed to form a new report of it, which extended to a great length; that their two reports were afterward submitted to the late Rev. Mr. Howlett, in order that he might form a new one on the modern arrangement recommended by the Board; that this gentleman made large additions, but that the Committee, for reasons which are not stated, having declined to direct the printing of Mr. H.'s work, a new survey was ordered, the execution of which fell, unsought, into his own hands. It is far from being with us a matter of regret that Mr. Young has devolved the final arrangement and exhibition of the materials for an agricultural history of Essex. In addition to his extensive experience and unwearied spirit of research,

research, he appears to us to entertain clear ideas on the business of County-Report making. Always remembering that these district-surveys are intended to furnish matter for a General Report on the internal state of the Kingdom, Mr. Young has endeavoured to keep *himself* as much out of sight as was possible, and to introduce the Essex farmer to the notice of the reader; who is properly apprized not to look into these volumes for amusement, but to expect from the bulk of their contents little more than tables of information, or details, which will be pronounced dull by all who are not seeking knowledge on the subjects to which they relate:

‘ Such readers, (says the Secretary in the conclusion of his Introduction,) as are apt to think that there is little use in collecting insulated, and perhaps apparently contradictory facts, will not be pleased in reading many of the pages of this, or of my other Reports; but such should in candour reflect on that great object of the Board, to collect hereafter the intelligence scattered throughout the whole into one focus; a general result: and in the work to be executed with that view, the discordant facts will be compared, and reduced to a systematic order. Circumstances which, in any Report, may appear anomalous at present, may then be reduced to known principles; and in the execution of such future work, the person, or persons, to whose care that important object may be entrusted, will not, I conceive, regret the number of the facts collected; but will, on the contrary, perhaps have reason, on many subjects, to lament that the materials are not sufficiently varied to furnish the solution of all difficulties. It is not by curtailing facts, that such future Work can be rendered great and useful. The cases, at present insulated and undigested, when contrasted, compared, or combined with others equally distinct, and apparently unimportant, will reflect a mutual light, and produce an effect which will be found nearly, perhaps wholly wanting, on subjects where the previous collection has been sparingly made by the Reporters, because unable themselves to deduce material conclusions.’

Though the several notices of agricultural practice given by Essex farmers may be very useful, and though it be proper to register them in a work of this kind, it will not be required of us, in making our report of the present volumes, to descend to these minutiae; and we shall consider our duty as discharged by adverting to those particulars which form the prominent features of the Survey.

As the first information in all the Reports is known to relate to the *Geographical State and Circumstances*, we shall here begin, as on former occasions, with extracting the account which is furnished by this work respecting the *situation, extent, divisions, climate, and soil* of the county of Essex.

‘ This

“ This county is one of the eastern maritime counties. It is bounded on the east by the German Ocean ; on the west by the rivers, Lea and Stort, with a part of Hertfordshire ; on the north by the river Stour, and part of Cambridgeshire ; and on the south by the river Thames. Its situation is between $51^{\circ} 30'$, and $52^{\circ} 15'$ north latitude, and from London, about $1^{\circ} 20'$ east longitude. Its extent, from east to west, is about 60 miles ; from north to south, 50 ; its outline or boundaries, about 120 miles ; containing nearly one million and two hundred and forty thousand acres *.”

“ Mr. Neele, map-engraver to the Board, from measuring the new map of the Board of Ordnance, makes it about 942,720 acres. The table annexed to the returns of poor-rates, in consequence of the act of the 43d of the King, makes it 976,000 acres.

“ The divisions of this county may be considered as two-fold, natural and artificial. Its natural divisions are divided into continent and islands. Its continent comprehends by far the major part. Its islands are numerous, but not extensive ; they lie bordering, partly on the German Ocean, and partly on the river Thames. The first and the most valuable, to the south-east, is the island of Mersea, eight or ten miles south of Colchester, between the mouths of the rivers Colne and Blackwater ; a rich and fertile spot, about five miles from east to west, and two from north to south. The islands, towards the south, in the hundred of Rochford, are, Foulness, Wallasea, Potten, Havengore, and New England, contiguous to each other ; bounded to the north by the Crouch river ; to the east and south east by the German Ocean ; and to the west, by the continental part of the hundred of Rochford ; and are about four or five miles from Rochford town. The remaining island, going towards the south-west, is Canvey Isle, surrounded by branches of the river Thames, and situated nearly at its mouth.

“ The artificial divisions of the county are, hundreds, towns, parishes, and hamlets. There are fourteen hundreds, and five smaller districts, called half-hundreds, containing, in all, 403 parishes, and 24 market-towns †.”

“ The climate of this county, in the common and popular sense of the word, is mild ; its northerly and easterly winds, however, in the northern and eastern quarters, especially during the spring months, when they most prevail, are pernicious, both to the animal and vegetable creation ; bringing to the latter destructive blights ; to the former, the human species particularly, colds and hoarseness. Part of the eastern and southern limits, for ten or twelve miles from the sea and the river Thames, in the hundreds of Thurstable, Dengy, Rochford, Barnstable, and Chaffers, are not a little subject, during the autumnal months, to thick and stinking fogs, which are often productive of quartan agues ; and a person can hardly pass through these hundreds, without being struck with a proof of it in the sallow sickly faces of the inhabitants, and the prominent bellies of the children. The draining of marshes, and the highly improved cultivation of the lands, however, it must be acknowledged, have al-

* • Howlett.

† Ibid.

ready greatly abated these evils, and probable hopes perhaps may be indulged, that in time it will be as salubrious as the rest of the county, which by no means deserves the imputation of unhealthiness, but may safely stand a comparison with any other part of the kingdom.*"

"The region of agues in Essex, I am sorry to say, is pretty extensive. That they should abound in the vicinity of marshes, is not surprising; but I was hurt to find, that the most elevated situations, in what are called *the hundreds*, are not exempt from them. The highest land for many miles is Landon-hill; and a clergyman going there to do the duty of the Sabbath, complimented the clerk on the healthy situation he lived in. In reply, he was assured of the contrary, and that the inhabitants thought themselves more plagued with *cold chills* (the provincial term for the *maladie du pays*), than they were in the vales. Those hills attract the vapours in the lower regions of the air, and render the inhabitants unhealthy.

"With regard to soil, every species of loam, as Messrs. Greggs have justly observed, from the most stubborn to the mildest, is to be found; nor is the county without a portion of light gravelly land, or a good share of meadow and marsh ground, the major part of which, with management adapted to its different qualities, is very productive.

"I divide it into eight districts.

"I. The crop and fallow district of strong loam, including the Roodings.

"II. The maritime district of fertile loam.

"III. IV. & V. Three districts of strong loam, not peculiar in management.

"VI. The turnip land district.

"VII. The chalk district.

"VIII. The district of miscellaneous loams."

According to the parliamentary returns, the population of the county is 226,638; and though Mr. Howlett suspected the enumeration to be incomplete, he offered it as his opinion that the utmost correctness in the late survey would not have raised the total amount to above 230,000.

The amount of the Poor Rates on a medium of three years (1783, 84, and 85) was 103,255*l.* 5*s.* 10*d.* In 1797, the aggregate amount was 200,000*l.* In 1799 and 1800, on account of the dearness of provisions, they were more than doubled throughout the county, and could not have been less than 500,000*l.* In 1801, Mr. Howlett conjectured that they would be reduced to between 300,000*l.* and 400,000*l.*

We are presented with the following information (derived from Mr. Howlett) in the section on *Estates and their management*:

"If by estates, are meant possessions in landed property, they are, in this county, in point of size and extent, almost infinitely various."

from one, five, and ten pounds a year, to ten, and even twenty, thousand; and, although there may be a few considerable and extensive estates in the hands of the nobility, or of some very wealthy private individuals, yet, perhaps, there never was a greater proportion of small and moderate-sized farms, the property of mere farmers, who retain them in their own immediate occupation, than at present. Such has been the flourishing state of agriculture for twenty or thirty years past, that scarcely an estate is sold, if divided into lots of forty or fifty to two or three hundred a year, but is purchased by farmers, who can certainly afford to give for them more than almost any other persons, as they turn them to the highest advantage by their own cultivation; and hence arises a fair prospect of landed property gradually returning to a situation of similar possession to what it was a hundred, or a hundred and fifty, years ago, when our inferior gentry resided upon their estates in the country, and, by their generous hospitality, diffused comfort and cheerfulness around them. Nor let us envy and grudge the farmers this prosperity: by their laborious and spirited exertions, they highly deserve it. Nor, indeed, after all their toils, are their acquisitions of wealth comparable to those in other situations and departments of society.

The only *Mansions* which are distinctly specified as deserving of notice are *Wanstead House*, the property of Miss Tynley Long, (occupied at present by the Prince of Condé,)—*Audley-End*, Lord Braybrook's,—*Mistley-hall*, formerly the residence of Mr. Rigby,—*Gasfield*, the Marquis of Buckingham's, which displays the taste of the late Earl Nugent, and which has lately received under its roof the illustrious stranger who has assumed the title of the Count *de Lisle*,—and *Thorndon*, the seat of Lord Petre. In the vicinity of the capital, many comfortable residences are to be seen: but in large portions of the county a striking dearth of the seats of gentlemen is to be remarked.

There is not one in the whole hundred of Dengy, which would come into contemplation on these ideas. There are but two acting magistrates in the hundred, and they both reside in the town of Maldon. In Rochford and Tending hundreds, and, indeed, in all the district that goes by the name of *the hundred*, they are extremely scarce. The reputation of unhealthiness accounts for this circumstance; yet there can be no doubt, that an improved drainage and cultivation, with clearing the ground of superfluous wood, has aided to the health of the inhabitants. These changes are all in progression, and will gradually remove the cause of the neglect complained of.

Some other parts of the county are but thinly inhabited by gentlemen, though far removed from the suspicion of agues. Mr. Bramston observed, that going north from Skreens, twelve miles on the crow flies to Lord Maynard's, there is not the trace of a gentleman's house; yet there are parts of the country that offer fine scenes of woodland landscape, with vales and brooks, admitting every sort of decoration.

The building of Cottages is represented to be the best means of remedying the evil of the high price of wages; and the result of the exertions of a cottager is displayed, to prove the beneficial consequences which flow from encouraging the poor to labour for themselves.

Though Essex has long been famous for containing some of the largest farms in the kingdom, especially in the district of *the hundreds*, where the rental of individual farms is from 1000l. to 2000l. per annum, yet on a general view of the county their size is very moderate; and the author is of opinion that, of farms of the better sort, a pretty general size is from one hundred acres to three hundred. Both Mr. Howlett and Mr. Young bear an honourable testimony to the character of the higher class of Essex farmers. The latter informs us that, in the whole course of his inquiries, he met with only two flat refusals; and that he found many of the farmers, with whom he conversed, to be men of much information and ingenuity, who carried on their business with a spirit of improving exertion.

Under the head of *Implements*, this work is more copious and illustrative than any of those of the same kind which have preceded it. The want of plates to represent the various tools employed in husbandry, which is a material deficiency in most of the county reports, cannot in the present instance be made a ground of complaint, since the number of plates in these two volumes is 58; the far greater part of which exhibit delineations of numerous kinds of ploughs, harrows, horse-hoes, scufflers, extirpators, cultivators, shims, skims, &c. for the view, and description of which we must refer to the volumes.

The prefatory sentences of the chapter on *Arable Land* will attract attention from the practical farmer to the statements given in this part of the report:

‘ Essex possesses rich marshes, extending an hundred miles in length; but the capital feature of the county is her arable land, which is cultivated, though not in perfection, yet, nearer to it than are nine in ten of the other counties. The fertility of the soil, and the good husbandry practised on it, will always render this county a very interesting object in British agriculture.’

Mr. T. Pittman, of Barking, is mentioned as one of the greatest potatoe-planters in the kingdom; having in general 300 acres annually cultivated with this useful root, and sending to market three thousand tons of potatoes, all washed and ready for sale!

Besides the cultivation of wheat, barley, oats, beans and peas, turnips and cabbages, Mr. Young notices that of Carrots,

Carrots, Parsnips, Hops, Coriander and Carraway, Weld, Mustard, Buck-wheat, Sainfoin, and Lucerne.

Respecting *Natural Woods* in this county, it is stated that they have been very much diminished both in number and extent within the last fifty years. Of *Waste Lands*, Essex contains 15,000 acres; and it is recommended to improve Epping forest as a nursery for Navy timber. The opinion of Mr. Conyers, of Copt-hall, on this topic, ought not to be slighted:

‘ It has been proved (says this gentleman) of late years to be very possible to raise oaks in this forest, even in its present unenclosed state, by no other exertion whatever than that of preserving the bushes. On those parts where a general devastation of the timber has been prevented, there are ocular proofs remaining of what the land can produce; and the experiment that I have made on about 400 acres, justifies me in the opinion, that it is extraordinary good woodland; the part I allude to, about 14 or 15 years ago, bore the most wretched appearance that can be described. It is to be lamented, that a survey of the various rights and soils on the forest of Epping, and the sorts of trees inclined to grow upon it, has not been made an object of peculiar attention, that the public, and the Board of Agriculture, might have been led to have formed an opinion, whether this extent of country, the extremities of which border almost on the Thames, and on the river Lea, and approach to within six miles of the metropolis, would be best under the plough or in a state of woodland. As to the enclosure of it, all must wish for such an event, who are witnesses to the evils arising from its present state of barbarism.’

Every person who passes through Epping Forest must lament its neglected state. This waste, and Hounslow heath, reproach the metropolis on the west and on the east.

A frontispiece to the second volume contains a view of Mr. Whitbread's chalk-quarry at Purfleet; and in the section on *Manures*, we have a full account of his lime-kiln establishment, as one of the most interesting that is to be found in Essex. We insert an extract on this subject:

‘ On that gentleman's estate there is a bold cliff of chalk covered by many feet of surface loam: from the magnitude of the excavation it has probably been wrought for many years; but the present possessor gave a new appearance to the place, and a fresh vigour to the works, by laying down iron rail-ways, for every purport of carting; 25 horses were constantly employed: since these ways have been made four do the work, and 21 have been dismissed, which ate each half a bushel of oats per diem the year round. The loam which covers the chalk is sold to shipping for ballast at 1s. 1d. per cart-load of one ton and a quarter: chalk is delivered into the barges at 2s. 6d.: flints, the load, (one ton and a half) at 14s.; and lime at 19s. 6d. One horse draws five or six waggons loaded. The disposition of the rail-ways is complete—they lead to the bottom of the cliff to receive loam, which

which is shovelled down to large wooden hoppers, which pour it ~~off~~ once into the carts, by means of the skeleton chalk rock being left in forms that conduct it. Ways lead hence also for delivering the broken chalk directly to the kilns, which for this purpose are built in a deeper excavation; and coals are also distributed by other ways. From the kilns, distinct iron roads lead also to shipping for delivery of the lime: the waggons are backed to the ship or barge side, and unloaded at once by tilting them up.'

To illustrate this account, two plates are annexed, containing a view and sections of the Purfleet waggon.

Essex was never celebrated for its *Livestock*, yet the chapter with this title contains matter not unworthy of notice. Mr. Young informs us that the introduction of South Down sheep and Devon cattle has made the farmers *think* on the subject of *breeds*, which he is persuaded will produce a good effect.—Keeping Cows for suckling calves being an object which generally pervades this county, a full account is given of this process, and a description is inserted of Mr. Conyers's Dairy, with a receipt to cure 'Calves Scouring.' As this latter is pronounced to be 'almost infallible,' and may be of use to those of our agricultural readers who have no opportunity of perusing county-reports, we shall insert it:

'Two tea-spoonful of rhubarb, and a table spoonful of pepper-mint-water, kneaded well: if one dose does not stop it, a second is given with a little red wine added. One of Mr. Roblason's calves was dying, as they conceived, and this medicine recovered it.'

From this disorder, to which calves are so very subject, we shall pass to the malady most fatal to Sheep, *i. e.* the *Rot*, in order to record a singular fact mentioned by this reporter:

'Wherever I have been, in the marsh districts of Essex, and they are numerous and extensive, I have inquired for this distemper, and agues, and marsh fevers. The answer has been every where the same — *the rot unknown, but agues in plenty.*'

Instead of styes for Pigs, Cases on wheels are recommended, which may be shifted from place to place, and if necessary moved about on grass land for its improvement. Plates representing these Pig-cases are inserted.

A section, occupying five pages, is assigned at the end of this chapter to the subject of *Fish*, as an article of profit to those who have large ponds on their farms. 'This, (says Mr. Y.,) of all the other branches of rural economy, is the least practised and the least understood in England; yet fish is every where a great luxury, and sells at a high price.'

In the section on the *Poor*, a long discussion is inserted from the pen of Mr. Howlett, in which he offers some objections against 'Benefit Clubs holden at public houses,' and

is decidedly of opinion that 'no contrivance short of adaptation of wages to the price of provisions, will ever be permanently efficacious for the reduction of the poor-rates.'

This report concludes with a *comparison of times*, in which an attempt is made to ascertain the rise in the price of labour, artisan's work, rent, rates, &c. from 1790 to 1803, which is averaged at 71 per cent.

In thus detailing some of the most striking contents of these volumes, many subordinate particulars are necessarily passed over in silence, in order to comprize the article within reasonable limits: but we trust that the sketch which we have taken will be a sufficient indication of the merit of this elaborate compilation and record of agricultural minutes.

As usual, a map of the County is prefixed.

ART. VIII. *Mr. Coxe's History of the House of Austria, &c.*

[*Art. continued from p. 17.*]

AFTER the shock that the mind receives while contemplating the continual agitation in which the world was held by Charles V., we relish the comparative tranquillity of the reign of the moderate Ferdinand, and contemplate with renovated pleasure the still more wise and benignant government of his accomplished son Maximilian II., who has not improperly been styled the German Titus. Ferdinand, who forms so diminutive a figure in most histories, is properly placed by Mr. Coxe more in the foreground: while the reflections of the historian himself, on the principal error in that sovereign's administration, are worthy of a free-born Briton, and shew a deep insight into the structure of society, as well as the causes of the welfare and prosperity of states. The Bohemians were possessed of rights and privileges which enabled them not only to enjoy but to abuse liberty. Their own turbulence and precipitancy, united with untoward incidents, placed this people at the mercy of their chief; who, in an evil moment, treated them as traitorous slaves, and not as offending freemen. He invaded their religious privileges, and deprived them of some of their most valuable rights. It must be owned, however, that the temptation was great, and that the provocation had not been slight; it required, therefore, a magnanimity which rarely falls to the lot of man, wholly to refrain from the excess into which Ferdinand fell in this instance.

We are induced to submit to our readers a few traits from Mr. Coxe's portrait of Ferdinand, whose fate it has been to be so much overlooked by other writers. We concur with this able and diligent historian in the praise which he bestows on that monarch's tolerant spirit: but, had he possessed it in a higher degree, the cause which shortened his days would have had no access to his mind, and probably would even have had no existence.

‘ Ferdinand died on the 25th of July 1564, in the sixty-second year of his age, of a fever which was occasioned by the chagrin arising from the religious troubles in his own dominions, and the failure of all his attempts to heal the schism of the church.

‘ Though as Protestants it is impossible not to consider Ferdinand as the great oppugner of religious truth, and the principal supporter of catholic errors, yet we cannot deny him the praise of an ardent and sincere attachment to the religion of his ancestors, free from bigotry and intolerance, to a degree unusual in his age and family. He saw and lamented the abuses of the church, and by his attempts to procure a real reformation, exposed himself to the odium of the Catholics; but he left an unequivocal proof of his religious sentiments in a paper annexed to his will, with the hope that this last memorial of a deceased parent would make a deep impression on the minds of his children. In this paper, he exhorted them with paternal tenderness to maintain an inflexible attachment to their religion; and corroborated his arguments by detailing the troubles and calamities which he considered as derived from the introduction of the Lutheran doctrines, and by holding forth to them the prospect both of celestial and terrestrial blessings as the reward of their obedience.

‘ Ferdinand in his youth possessed uncommon beauty of countenance, and, in his more advanced age, united with a graceful deportment the dignity and gravity of a sovereign. To the completion of his education, according to the plan of Erasmus, he probably owed a greater degree of taste and erudition than usually falls to the lot of a monarch. Besides the Spanish, Italian, German, and French languages, he was well acquainted with classical literature, and possessed a general knowledge of the arts and sciences. He evinced his taste and disposition by the great delight which he found in perusing the Greek writers, and the predilection he shewed for Cæsar and Cicero. He was attached to the society of the learned, whom he treated with freedom and familiarity, patronized men of letters, and maintained an intimate correspondence with Erasmus, on whom he conferred marks of distinction and liberality expressive of his gratitude and respect. Among others, he also employed and favoured the learned Busbequius, who is distinguished for his embassy to Constantinople, and his excellent account of the Turks.

‘ In domestic life he was a model of temperance, decorum, and sobriety, and was remarkable for a placid and forgiving disposition. He was faithful to the marriage bed; and, even after the death of a beloved wife, preserved an inviolable continence.

‘ Bred

‘ Bred up by Spanish priests, and led astray by the example of his brother, Ferdinand gave, in the fervour of youth, and the career of victory, proofs of intolerance and despotism ; but, unlike Charles, he became more wise and moderate as he advanced in years, varied and adapted his conduct to contingencies, and gradually corrected those arbitrary and persecuting principles which he had imbibed in the school of Ferdinand the Catholic. The characteristic qualities of Ferdinand, when matured by experience, were application, vigilance, mildness, and impartiality ; policy without deceit, courage without ostentation. He did not possess the brilliant talents of his brother, yet neither did he inherit that restless and despotic genius, which led Charles to sacrifice to his own ambitious views the tranquillity and happiness of his people. Though he did not attract the wonder of his age, he deserved, and obtained what was far more desirable, the esteem of his contemporaries and the love of his subjects. He may justly be called the pacificator of Germany ; and to him may be attributed the lustre of that branch of the House of Austria of which he was the head.’

The manner in which Mr. Coxe introduces Maximilian II. to the notice of his readers may be displeasing to fanatics of different sorts, but it will not offend persons of a discreet and sober turn of mind, who are accustomed to comprehensive views of human affairs, and who value practical good. That amiable monarch does not seem to have been endowed with the enthusiasm of a confessor and martyr, but probably was of opinion that, in the view of the Universal Father, the spirit of religion is of more value than its forms ; and that sincere homage may be conveyed to heaven and be received with equal favour, though expressed by different formularies and accompanied by different ceremonies. If such a notion could be erroneous, still we should regard it as a venial if not a desirable mistake in princes and rulers ; as an error which is friendly to the tranquillity of the world, and the welfare of empires. If state necessity will justify crimes, and flagrant breaches of morality, why should it not palliate a laxity in religious zeal, when such laxity prevents wars and bloodshed and devastation : but can that zeal, which would appal the conscience by violence, or tempt it by bribes, be acceptable to heaven ? We are aware that the decrees of councils, and the enactments of senates, give a sanction to this zeal : but with us it is not less clear that reason, and the feelings of uncorrupted nature, revolt against it ; and we are not able to reconcile it with that universal goodwill which is the leading feature of christianity ; nor with the temper of that religion which ascribes more virtue to the Samaritan heretic than to the orthodox Levite, and which prefers even the sincere publican

publican (a heathen) to the pharisee, the strict conformist of the day.

Schisms existed among the protestants at this time; and this liberal sovereign did not deem it degrading to interpose his good offices even to heal them, and to ensure to one branch of that religious body those rights and privileges which were denied by bigots embarked with them in the same cause. How justly he thought, and how strongly he felt, on this subject, may be collected from an anecdote here related :

‘ Although Maximilian was father-in-law to Charles the Ninth, at whose command the massacre of St. Bartholomew was perpetrated, he publicly expressed his abhorrence of such sanguinary proceedings; and, on the death of Charles, when Henry of Valois, in returning from Poland to take possession of the crown, passed through Vienna, he laboured to dissuade him from similar acts of persecution, and made that memorable observation, which has been recorded so much to his honour, “ That no crime was greater in princes than to tyrannize over the consciences of their subjects; and that, far from honouring the common Father of all, by shedding the blood of heretics, they incurred the divine vengeance; and, while they aspired by such means to crowns in heaven, they justly exposed themselves to the loss of their earthly kingdoms.” ’

It appears that this great and good prince was often thwarted in his benevolent and tolerant schemes: but he was seldom wholly diverted from his object. The meddling of the Pope, seconded by the Spanish Monarch, did indeed cause him to halt in realizing projects of this sort, but nothing could make him tread back one step in this not less glorious than charitable career. He did not think that his power in Bohemia was compromised, or that the church was endangered, because all civil and military offices were open to Bohemians of every religious persuasion; and during his reign no difference was made between subjects on this account. Since, then, in the list of monarchs, few present equal claims with Maximilian II. to wisdom, beneficence, and a liberal spirit, we are tempted to submit to our readers the portrait which Mr. Coxe has sketched of him, though it be somewhat minute :

‘ Maximilian had long felt his health declining, and his end was hastened by the anxiety and fatigue derived from mental and bodily exertions. Like his great ancestor of the same name, he was fond of meditating and discoursing on the immortality of the soul; and he met his death with the calmness and resignation of a christian. He expired at Ratisbon, where he had been holding a diet, in the fiftieth year of his age, and the twelfth of his reign.

‘ Contemporary writers have left no specific description of the person and features of this amiable monarch; but all agree in extolling the

the grace and elegance of his manners, and the fascination of his conversation and deportment. His life and reign exhibit the fairest and most pleasing picture of the qualities of his mind.

‘ Maximilian, by his vigour, activity, and address, gained, when young, the esteem and favour of Charles the Fifth, who used to call him his right hand, gave him his eldest daughter Mary in marriage, and, before he had attained the twenty first year of his age, appointed him viceroy of Spain, during his absence with Philip in Germany and the Low Countries. But though instructed in the arts of government by Charles, Maximilian was not swayed by his example, or allured by the splendour of his achievements; for, instead of adopting those principles of dissimulation and duplicity, and that unbounded ambition which disgraced the head of the empire, he distinguished himself by frankness, candour, mildness, moderation, benevolence, and liberality of sentiment.

‘ He loved, cultivated, and encouraged the arts and sciences, and held men of learning in the highest confidence and esteem. He was remarkable for his knowledge of languages, and was not unaptly compared to Mithridates, for the facility with which he spoke the different tongues of the various people over whom he reigned. He was, besides, well read in Latin, and conversed in it with great ease, purity, and elegance. Though of a convivial disposition and fond of society, his course of life was sober and regular; lively and facetious in conversation, he tempered, without debasing the dignity of his station, by the most affable and condescending behaviour, and Henry of Valois, himself a pattern of courtesy, declared, that in all his travels, he had never met a more accomplished gentleman. Nor were these pleasing qualities assumed merely for public occasions, and to dazzle the eyes of his courtiers; for in private he was equally good and amiable; a faithful and affectionate husband, a tender parent, and a kind and benevolent master.

‘ Like our great Alfred he was regular and systematical in the distribution of his time; and his hours were distinctly appropriated for prayer, business, diversion, and repose. In his consultations he listened with patience and complacency to the opinions of all; and it was justly observed by the vice-chancellor of the empire, that had he been a chancellor or secretary, he would have surpassed all his chancellors and secretaries, and rendered his ministers his scholars. He was accessible to persons of all distinctions; after his dinner, he gave a general audience to his subjects, sitting or standing by the table; addressed himself with singular courtesy to the meanest persons, and possessed the rare talent of never dismissing his petitioners dissatisfied. He was economical without parsimony, fond of plainness and simplicity no less in his apparel than in his diet, and he carried his contempt of finery so far, that he never purchased a single jewel for his personal attire.

‘ We recite with pleasure the testimony of the Bohemian ambassadors who were deputed to promote his interests with the Poles, no less as a true picture of his general conduct than as a heartfelt testimony of gratitude from subjects to their sovereign. “We Bohemians are as happy under his government as if he were our father; our
M 3 privileges,

privileges, our laws, our rights, liberties, and usages, are protected, maintained, defended, and confirmed. No less just than wise, he confers the offices and dignities of the kingdom only on natives of rank ; and is not influenced by favour or artifice. He introduces no innovations contrary to our immunities ; and, when the great expences which he incurs for the good of Christendom render contributions necessary, he levies them without violence, and with the approbation of the states. But what may be almost considered as a miracle, is the prudence and impartiality of his conduct towards persons of a different faith, always recommending union, concord, peace, toleration, and mutual regard. He listens even to the meanest of his subjects, readily receives their petitions, and renders impartial justice to all ”

‘ Historians, not distinguishing between a sovereign pacific from principle and reflection, or from indolence and pusillanimity, have censured Maximilian for dilatory and inactive measures, which were the effects of precaution and policy ; and have turned to scorn what ought to have been considered as the great glory of his reign, his unwillingness to involve his subjects in foreign and distant wars. In reality, his love of peace did not proceed from want of military skill, or deficiency of personal courage ; as he had distinguished himself both for address and valour in the campaign of 1544, against Francis the First, and in the war of Smalkalde. It was derived from a conviction, that Germany and his hereditary countries required repose and tranquillity, after a long period of contention and war ; and that the preservation of peace was the only means of soothing those religious and political animosities which had been derived from the stupendous revolutions in church and state. With him, therefore, the desire of aggrandizement was but a secondary consideration ; the maintenance of peace, which he deemed the greatest blessing he could confer on his people, was the ruling principle of all his actions. From the adoption of this principle, Germany and the dominions of the House of Austria, except Hungary, enjoyed under him a series of almost uninterrupted peace ; while the rest of Europe was exposed to all the evils of civil commotion, religious discord, or foreign war.

‘ No stronger proof of his great and amiable qualities can be given, than the concurring testimony of the historians of Germany, Hungary, Bohemia, and Austria, both Catholics and Protestants, who vie in his praises, and in representing him as a model of impartiality, wisdom, and benignity ; and it was truly said of him, what can be applied to few sovereigns, that in no one instance was he impelled, either by resentment or ambition, to act contrary to the strictest rules of moderation and justice, or to disturb the public tranquillity. Germany revived, in his favour, the surname of Titus, or, the Delight of Mankind ; and if ever a christian and philosopher filled the throne, that christian and philosopher was Maximilian the Second.’

Maximilian was succeeded by his eldest son Rudolph II. or, as Mr. Coxe and most English authors write the name, Rhodolph. This

This prince, who ascended the throne in his 25th year, had considerable talents, and was like his father naturally mild and pacific. Unfortunately, however, his early years had been too much intrusted to the superintendence of his mother, Mary, the daughter of Charles V., who was remarkable for the blindest attachment to the Romish faith. So strong, indeed, was this ruling feature in her character, that when on the death of her husband she retired into Spain, she testified her joy at returning to a country in which *there was no heretic*, and terminated her days in a nunnery. With such an inveterate bias as Maximilian must have known her to possess, it is equally matter of surprize and regret that he consigned to her the early religious tuition of his numerous progeny. The consequence was that

‘ Rhodolph was deeply imbued with her superstitious sentiments, and that tincture was strengthened instead of being weakened by his removal to the court of Madrid, whither he was sent as presumptive successor to the Spanish monarchy. His education was there completed, under the auspices of Philip, by the Jesuits, who possessed the art of fixing an almost indelible impression on youthful minds, and whose mode of education tended rather to fill and occupy than to expand and exercise the understanding ; to render their pupils sedentary and contemplative, and to inure them to the petty arts of intrigue and dissimulation, rather than to fit them for the cares of government, and the duties of active life. Hence his mother, though distant, possessed the same influence over his mind when arrived at years of discretion, as in the pliancy of youth ; and, by her means, as well as by the agency of the Jesuits, he was, during his whole reign, rendered totally subservient to the court of Madrid. Even his learning, which, in a person of a different character, might have tended to counteract this predominant influence, contributed to rivet the fetters of early habit and education.’

It is not in the conduct of the new emperor alone, however, that we see exemplified at this time the mischiefs of bigotry ; the protestant body first incur the ignominy, and then smart under the hardships arising out of the intolerant maxims which they themselves had sanctioned and adopted :

‘ Hitherto, (observes our historian,) notwithstanding all diversity of doctrine, and the persecution of the Lutherans, the princes of the reformed religion had, without distinction, sheltered themselves under the Confession of Augsburgh ; but the progress of Calvinism, and its intolerant spirit, at length induced the Lutherans to form a barrier of separation, and to exclude the Calvinists from the peace of religion ; and, by this measure, they were themselves led to the same acts of persecution, which they condemned in others. Under the auspices of Augustus, elector of Saxony, and Ulric, duke of Wirtemberg,

temberg, both strenuous partizans of the doctrine of Luther; a symbolical formulary, or creed, called the Book of Concord, had been drawn up by the Saxon divines, containing an explanation of the principal points of controversy, deduced from the Confession and Apology of Augsburgh, the peace of Smalkalde, and the two catechisms of Luther. It was published at Torgau, on the 25th of June, under the signature of the three secular electors, Augustus of Saxony, John George of Brandenburg, and Louis, elector Palatine, twenty-two princes, the same number of counts, and thirty five imperial towns. It was introduced into all the dominions of the Lutheran princes; and all priests and school-masters were ordered to give their public assent to its doctrines, under the pain of instant deprivation.

John Casimir, Count Palatine of Lautern, who afterwards became administrator of the Palatinate during the minority of his nephew, endeavoured to prevent or retard the publication of this creed. His instances were ineffectually seconded by William, landgrave of Hesse Cassel, and even by the ambassador of Elizabeth, queen of England; and the consequence was a schism of the two parties, to the inconceivable detriment of the whole protestant body. For had the two sects formed a system of doctrine on the points in which they both agreed, in opposition to the church of Rome, instead of one derived from those abstruse doctrines on which they differed, we can scarcely doubt that their party must have become predominant, when we consider their physical strength and local situation, and their numerous partizans in every part of catholic Germany, particularly in the dominions of the House of Austria. But by this impolitic separation, and the consequent dissensions, the equipoise which subsisted between the ecclesiastical and secular electors was destroyed; and the event proved the truth of the prediction made by cardinal Commendon at the first rise of the schism, that the spirit of party and theological hatred, if let loose among the Protestants, would of itself deliver the church of Rome from the danger of that total apostacy with which she was threatened in Germany.

The Jesuits, the great advisers and directors of Rhodolph, took advantage of these dissensions, and, with consummate ingenuity, turned the arguments adduced, and precedents established by the Protestants against themselves. They urged that the religious peace, which originally was only temporary and without legal permanency, was now abrogated; for it was not applicable to the Calvinists, because the Lutherans themselves had disclaimed them as brethren, nor to the Lutherans, because, by adopting a new creed, they no longer adhered to the Confession of Augsburgh, which was the basis of the religious peace. With the same address they brought forward the mutual persecutions of the Protestants, as an argument that catholic sovereigns had as much right to deprive their protestant subjects of religious toleration, as the protestant princes had assumed by forcibly establishing, in their respective dominions, their own peculiar tenets. But they directed their principal attention to the support
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of the Ecclesiastical Reservation, as the great barrier of the catholic church in Germany.

‘ In conformity with their suggestions, the catholic body adopted a systematic plan for the gradual extirpation of the protestant tenets, which they carried into execution under the popular name of a reform. The grand principle of this system was to force the Protestants to insurrection, by executing strictly the letter of the peace of religion, and other compacts between the Catholics and Protestants, by interpreting in their own favour every stipulation which was left doubtful, and by revoking every tacit concession, which had been yielded from fear rather than from conviction; and thus to make every new restriction appear not an act of persecution but a just chastisement of disobedience and insurrection. As a part of this plan, it was their purpose to lessen the authority of the imperial chamber, by discontinuing the annual visitation, and gradually to transfer religious causes before the Aulic Council, which was composed of catholic members, and solely under the controul of the emperor. This project was carried into execution with uniform consistency and perseverance by the ministers who directed the counsels of the emperor, and was supported by all the weight of the Spanish court under Philip the Third, who was enabled to detach for its execution a part of the great military force which he maintained in the Netherlands.’

Mr. Coxe's picture of the state of Rudolph's dominions, a short time previously to his abdication, and that alternative itself, to which he was reduced, furnish an instructive lesson on the mischiefs of narrow and contracted religious views in governors and statesmen, who rule over kingdoms in which differences of faith are existing.

The short reign of Mathias, third son of Maximilian, and who expelled and succeeded his brother Rudolph, ushers to our notice that of his cousin Ferdinand II., and the Bohemian commotions, which gave rise to the bloody tragedy of the thirty years' war. The circumstances which favoured and hastened the elevation of this prince are particularly detailed by Mr. Coxe, who thus remarks on that event :

‘ When we consider the known character and conduct of Ferdinand, we are unable to account for the little opposition which he experienced from the Protestants. He was son of the archduke Charles, by Maria, a princess of Bavaria, and was born in 1578, at Gratz, the capital of Styria. On the death of his father he was brought up under the guardianship of his two cousins, the archdukes Ernest and Maximilian, who were both zealous for the catholic faith, and he completed his education at the university of Ingolstadt, under the care of the Jesuits, and of his uncle William, the fifth duke of Bavaria, a prince who was imbued with all the fanaticism of the Bavarian House, and who equalled the most devout hermit in acts of mortification and self abasement. He possessed eminent talents, and a quick comprehension; but these talents were perverted by his
monastic

monastic education ; and it was only owing to native energy of mind that he did not degenerate into another Rhodolph. From these circumstances his mind received an early and irremediable bias ; he displayed an unremitting partiality to his teachers, passed whole days in their society, and was often heard to declare, that, had he been as free as his brothers, he would have entered into the order of Jesuits. From their instructions he derived that inflexible bigotry and intolerance, and that hostility to the Protestants, which, at this period, formed the great characteristics of their order. He frequently expressed a resolution to live with his family in banishment, to beg his bread from door to door, to submit to every insult and calamity, to lose even his life, rather than suffer the true church to be injured. When he assumed the reigns of government, he proved that these declarations were not the effusions of idle enthusiasm. He refused to confirm the privileges, which his father Charles had granted to his protestant subjects, and sent his commissaries to eject their preachers from the archducal domains ; these commissaries being expelled, he collected troops to enforce the execution of his orders. In the interim, he made a pilgrimage to Loretto, and bound himself by the most solemn vows, before the miraculous image, not to rest till he had extirpated all heresy in his dominions ; at Rome he was consecrated by the hands of Clement the Eighth, and his resolutions were strengthened by the exhortations of the pontiff.

When we approached this sad era, we turned over the leaves which contain the dismal story with elevated expectations. Aware of the extensive acquaintance with original German works which Mr. Coxe possesses, we had no doubt of finding the origin of this dreadful warfare, the various events and fluctuations of fortune which distinguished it, and the effects which resulted from it, more satisfactorily developed and described, than had yet been done in any work in our own language. With pleasure we add that in these anticipations we have not been deceived, since the narrative displays to high advantage the industry, judgment, discrimination, and liberal views of its author. The whole is in unison with the able sketch which he has drawn, of the effects which a fanatical education had produced on the sombre mind of Ferdinand ; and the history of this period illustrates, beyond that of any other, the pure evils and gratuitous calamities which follow in the train of intolerance. 'The thirty years' war' had no other cause, and its bloodshed and devastations are among the most memorable in history : it embraced the whole continent of Europe ; it failed in all its objects ; it was commenced in order to strengthen the head of the empire, and to annihilate the protestants, while it had the effect of diminishing the imperial prerogatives, and of giving great additional strength and stability to the protestant body ; it weakened both branches of the family of Austria, and brought
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the Imperial House to the brink of ruin ; it introduced into the hereditary dominions a regimen which stupified and enervated the subjects ; and it established in the empire a foreign influence which ever after paralyzed its exertions, and gradually induced that state of weakness which occasioned its recent subversion. In this fatal contest, we see delineated the predominant dispositions and prevailing habits of the first mover. The firmness of the man, and the ardour of the fanatic, are imprinted on his proceedings. How furiously does he commence, and how obstinately does he persevere ! The resources of an immense empire administer to the rage of a frantic persecutor. Such was the man destined by heaven to be the principal scourge of the sixteenth century !

On his return to his original dominions, after his elevation to the throne of the Cæsars had been settled, and he had been invested with the crown of Bohemia,

‘ The first act of his government was a new order for the banishment of all the protestant preachers and school-masters, and in opposition to the remonstrances of the states, he carried the rigorous measure into execution by force. He supplied the place of the protestant seminaries, by founding two convents of Capuchins, at Gratz and Bruck, and colleges of Jesuits at Gratz, Laybach, and Clagenfurth. Although two-thirds of his subjects were Protestants, he ordered all who would not embrace the catholic faith to quit his dominions ; and supplied the places of those who preferred banishment to the desertion of their faith by introducing numbers of Catholics from Wallachia and the neighbouring provinces. To complete the total expulsion of heresy, his commissaries, accompanied by an escort, passed from town to town, and from village to village, restoring the antient churches to the Catholics, and demolishing the new churches and school-houses, which had been erected by the Protestants. Notwithstanding the severity of these measures, they met with little opposition ; and he experienced no obstacle to his designs, except a slight and ineffectual remonstrance of the states, and a trifling insurrection of the peasants in Carinthia and the miners of Carniola.’

Alluding to the situation of Ferdinand II. after the reduction of Bohemia, Mr. Coxe indulges in the following well-founded and important reflections :

‘ Had justice and moderation guided the sentiments of Ferdinand, the war might now have been terminated with honour and safety ; he might have gratified his allies, and reimbursed his expences with the confiscated property of the rebels, and might have converted the elector Palatine from an enemy into a friend and dependent, by restoring him to the quiet possession of his hereditary territories. The fate of Germany, and the tranquillity of Europe, depended upon his nod ; and never did a more important decision rest on the will of a single

single individual, never did the blindness and intolerance of a single man produce such an extent of mischief and calamity.'

If we bear in mind the character and conduct of Ferdinand, we shall be ready to allow with Mr. Coxe that, after the successes of Waldstein, 'his intentions were evidently directed to extirpate the protestant doctrines by the assistance of the Catholics, and then to reduce the Catholics themselves to dependence. He was likely to aid the Spaniards in recovering the United Provinces, and he hoped, by opening a communication through the Valteline with the Spanish dominions in Lombardy, to give law to Europe by the weight of their united forces.'

Our limits are much too confined to admit of our doing justice to the able manner in which the historian lays open the motives of the Swedish Hero, Gustavus Adolphus, the causes of his success, the adroit and double part acted by France, and the jarring interests of the parties who opposed Ferdinand, in this prolonged warfare. Could statesmen condescend to derive instruction from history, they would learn from this interesting portion of it how a government ought to regard differences in matters of religion.

The striking effects of the recall of Waldstein were very similar to those which attended the re-appearance of Bonaparte in France after his escape from Egypt, and they are well related by Mr. Coxe. Waldstein is, indeed, one of the most extraordinary characters in modern history. He has been ably drawn by Schiller; though Mr. C. throws some doubts on the account given by that author and many others, of the causes which led to the tragical end of the hero.

In the memorable battle of Lutzen, which soon followed, Gustavus fell covered with glory; and, as Schiller thinks, happily for his moral reputation. The historic reader will recollect the prompt stratagem by which the Duke of Saxe Weimar was able, for the moment, to repair the ill effects of the sad catastrophe, and fully to make up for the loss. We cannot refrain from copying the portrait of the Northern hero, as delineated by Mr. Coxe:

'Thus fell Gustavus Adolphus in the thirty-eighth year of his age, one of the greatest monarchs who ever adorned a throne. As an individual, he was religious without bigotry or affectation, temperate, and a pattern of conjugal fidelity and domestic affection. Though unable to conquer at all times a constitutional warmth of temper*, he possessed all the social virtues, and the conciliation of
courtesy,

* The chancellor Oxenstiern, who knew his master well, said of him to Whitelocke, "If any fault might be imputed to that king,
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courtesy, in so high a degree, that no individual was ever admitted to his converse without being charmed, or left his presence dissatisfied. To all these amiable qualities, he united the learning of a scholar, and the accomplishments of a gentleman. As a statesman he was firm, sagacious, and provident, embracing equally the grand features and minute details of the most extensive plans. As a General, he surpassed his contemporaries in his knowledge of all the branches of the military art, in a bold, inventive, and fertile genius. His intuitive sagacity, undisturbed presence of mind, and extensive foresight, were warmed and animated by an intrepidity more than heroic. No commander was ever more ready to expose his person to dangers, or more willing to share the fatigues and hardships of his troops; he was accustomed to say, "Cities are not taken by keeping in tents; as scholars, in the absence of the master, shut their books, so my troops, without my presence, would slacken their blows." Like many other great men he was a predestinarian, from a pious submission to the inevitable decrees of an all-wise providence: to those who urged him to spare his person, he replied, "My hour is written in heaven, and cannot be reversed on earth."

He created a new system of tactics, and formed an army which was without a parallel for its excellent discipline and for its singular vigour, precision, and unity in action. He conquered, not by dint of numbers, or the impulse of a fortunate rashness, but by the wisdom and profoundness of his combinations, by his irresistible yet bridled spirit of enterprize, by that confidence and heroism which he infused into his troops. Since the days of Alexander, the progress of no conqueror had been equally rapid; since the time of Cæsar, no individual had united, in so consummate a degree, all the qualities of the gentleman, the statesman, and the soldier.

As Schiller entertained doubts respecting the cause of the death of Gustavus, we may presume that few English readers have satisfied themselves on this controverted point: but we think that Mr. Coxe's note (at p. 780) must be regarded as setting the matter for ever at rest, and deciding that he met his fate in fair hostility. On general principles, indeed, and in the absence of proof against the accused, we have ever classed the charge preferred against the monarch's supposed assassin, among the fables which for a time mingle themselves with true history.

it was that sometimes he would be very choleric. It was his temper. He was wont to say to me, "You are too phlegmatic; and if somewhat of my heat was not mingled with your phlegm, my affairs would not succeed so well as they do." To whom, with his leave, I would answer: 'Sir, if my phlegmatic temper did not mingle some coolness with your heat, your affairs would not be so prosperous as they are.' At which answer the king would laugh heartily, and give me my freedom of speaking fully to him." *Whitelocke's Journal*, vol. i. p. 347.

The long meditated treason ascribed to Waldstein by most historians is, with much plausibility, controverted by Mr. Coxe : who thus closes his account of the mysterious affair of that warrior's disgrace and assassination :

‘ In justice to this arrogant, ambitious, eccentric, and implacable, but great and injured, man, we have deemed it our duty to strip his cause of its false colouring and specious exaggerations ; and to describe his conduct as it appeared on a candid and unimpassioned review. Though at last driven into treason by pride, indignation, ill-requited service, and self-defence, it was, during the greater part of his splendid career, his honour and his boast to raise the authority and glory of Austria, and to become the sole instrument and supporter of her power. He was far superior to his sovereign in true policy, in liberality of sentiment, in religious toleration ; and these qualities (the want of which occasioned all the misfortunes of Ferdinand) became the theme of accusation in a bigotted and tyrannical court. His crime was that of being too powerful, of contemning the prejudices and passions of those on whom he was dependent, and of an overweening confidence in his own good fortune and superior abilities. These were his failings as a courtier ; as a General he deserves a high rank in a martial age, and a period of great men. He does not, like his royal antagonist, astonish us by daring efforts, and splendid enterprizes ; but, though he did not want fire when necessary, his distinguishing characteristics were extreme vigilance and presence of mind, profound judgment and unshaken perseverance ; and it is the greatest eulogium we can pay to his character and talents as a soldier, to add, that he was the only General who checked the progress or defeated the designs of Gustavus Adolphus.’

We are inclined to think that, in the present sketch, the author had principally in his eye Waldstein after his recall : and that he did not sufficiently bear in mind the different circumstances of the two heroes. When the imperial General re-assumed the command, he found his antagonist in the midst of his victorious career, with his laurels still green, while his own achievements were in a degree forgotten. We apprehend that if these chiefs had changed situations, each would have altered his conduct, and each would have adopted the line which the other followed. It is remarkable that a hero and a conqueror is rarely a bigot. Cromwell, a fanatic up to a mature age, favoured unlimited toleration ; bigotry is not among the vices of Bonaparte ; and Mr. Coxe records the enlarged views of Waldstein. In similar circumstances with the two former, he probably would have acted a similar part, and perhaps with a corresponding good fortune. In heroic qualities, all the three may be nearly equal : but in native generosity, and real magnanimity, we cannot help considering

considering the English usurper as having much the superiority over the other two.

The liberal views and the judgment of Mr. Coxe appear with equal effect in his concluding character of Ferdinand; whom heaven, in compassion to the sufferings of mankind, at length withdraws from the scene. We should with pleasure quote the passage if we had room for it, but must be contented with referring to pp. 914—16.

In a similar spirit with that in which the historian closes the last reign, he commences his account of the succeeding monarch :

‘ As the faintest gleam of light, to those who have been long surrounded with storms and hurricane* seems to presage a returning calm, so the death of a bigotted emperor, and the accession of a tolerant prince, gave hopes that peace would be speedily restored to Germany. But after so long and dreadful a contest it was no easy task to re-establish tranquillity ; for the ravages of the war had impressed the deepest antipathy on the minds of the contending parties, and the varied and contradictory connections of eighteen years, had left an endless variety of jarring interests to accommodate and disentangle. The new monarch, unable to obtain any terms of peace, but such as would have dishonoured the memory of his father, injured the interests of his House, and endangered the Catholic cause, was compelled to continue a contest entailed on him with his inheritance, and of which he had seen and deplored the fatal effects.’

The war still lasted for several years, and was carried on with various fortune : but it now partook of the nature of ordinary wars : the malignant spirit of bigotry no longer occasioned its termination to be viewed as at an immeasurable distance ; and another Ferdinand, the son and successor of its author, rendered humanity the service of bringing it to a close. He is thus described by Mr. Coxe :

‘ Without those energies of mind, without those splendid talents or striking defects which marked the character of his father, Ferdinand the Third was mild, prudent, attentive to the affairs of state, and skilful in conducting them ; and so great a lover of justice, that his own declaration may be with truth applied to him, “ During his whole reign no one could reproach him with a single act which he knew to be unjust.” He was conversant in various languages, and a lover and patron of the arts and sciences. He was not deficient in military skill, and, from his conduct in the battle of Nordlingen, and his campaign in Bohemia, we may conclude that he would have distinguished himself as a warrior, had he not been kept from the field by the weakness of his constitution, which, at an early period, suffered from the attacks of the gout. Though educated by Jesuits, and brought up under the auspices of his bigotted father, he rose superior to that intolerant spirit which gave rise to all the miseries of Germany, and even liberated himself from the trammels which his preceptors

preceptors usually fixed on the minds of their pupils; for he took from their society the direction of the Caroline university, and confined them to deliver lectures on philosophy and theology.'

For a full exposition of the incalculable prejudices which this war of religion occasioned to the House of Austria, we must refer to the history before us. We would only repeat that it caused the prerogatives of the head of the empire to be called in question, and to become inefficient; that it rendered the empire in a manner independent of its chief; that it weakened the catholic, and established the rights and communities of the protestant states; and that it added to their strength by large and important acquisitions, and still more by the union among them to which it gave stability. Moreover, by the treaty in which it ended,

'France, (as Mr. Coxe remarks,) was enabled to secure passages into Germany and Italy; to avail herself of those regulations which rendered the empire an aristocracy, by detaching the minor states from their chief; and to form, on every occasion, a powerful party against the emperor or the House of Austria. Under the pretext of the joint guaranty, to which she was entitled by this treaty, she found a never-failing excuse for interfering in the affairs of the empire; she assumed the protection of the weaker states, by affecting to support their liberties; and seized continual opportunities of increasing that influence, which was already too predominant, and afterwards became fatal to Germany.'

Thus does this arrogant propensity, which is an usurpation of the prerogatives of omniscience,—and which reduces the upright individual to the cruel alternative of foregoing his dearest civil rights, or of wounding his conscience,—carry with it its own punishment, when unfortunately it sways the bosom of rulers. In vain will its advocates turn over the pages of history, to find any prejudice which has arisen to states from the allowance of religious liberty in its utmost extent. From the epoch of the reformation to the peace of Westphalia, the history of Germany forms only a series of elucidations of the expediency and policy of religious liberty, and of the mischiefs and calamities of which bigotry is productive. Mr. Coxe has properly seized the spirit of the period. The manner in which he develops it shews at once the judicious philosopher and the charitable divine; the facts which he relates, and his reflections on them, present important lessons on civil policy; and they inspire the philanthropist with the hope, that statesmen will in time be taught to render differences in religious matters harmless by banishing all distinctions on account of them, and by cherishing all their subjects, whatever be their forms of faith, with equal kindness and affection.

The crowded events of this part of European history, the superior interest which it derives from the manner in which it has here been penned, and the additional light thrown on it by Mr. Coxe, in consequence of the access which he has obtained to rare and remote sources, have occasioned this article to be prolonged to an unusual extent, and oblige us to devote another to the remaining portion of the work.

[To be continued.]

ART. IX. *The Anatomy and Surgical Treatment of Crural and Umbilical Hernia, &c. &c.* By Astley Cooper, F.R.S. Surgeon to Guy's Hospital, &c. Illustrated by Plates. Part II. Folio. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 18c7.

IT gives us great pleasure to announce to our surgical readers the second part of Mr. Cooper's valuable publication on this malady. After having, in his first volume, described the inguinal hernia, he now proceeds to give an account of the crural, the umbilical, and of the other less frequent and less important varieties of the disease. His general method of discussing the subject is similar to that which he followed in his former treatise; he begins by describing the structure of the parts concerned in the disease, the symptoms, and the anatomy in the morbid state; the removal of the affection by the different internal or external applications, and by means of the appropriate operation; and lastly he adduces a number of cases, taken from his own practice, and that of his correspondents, in order to illustrate or confirm his particular views.

The first chapter contains a very minute description of the parts affected by crural hernia in their natural state; especially of the different ligaments and fasciæ which either contribute to form the passage through which the hernial sac protrudes, or are presented to view during the operation for its removal. Poupart's ligament, as it was formerly called, but to which Mr. Cooper gives the name of the crural arch, first comes under consideration; and our attention is particularly directed to another ligamentous body, that was first announced by M. Gimbernat, and has more lately been described by Mr. Hay and Mr. Burns, which, as it appears, is the immediate cause of the stricture in crural hernia. Mr. O. thinks that it is formed from the thickening or duplicature of the edge of the *fascia lata*.—We have next an account of the 'parts which shut the abdomen from the thigh;' they are detailed with unusual precision, but it would be impossible to convey any idea of them without the aid of plates; and we shall notice only one part which he describes under the title

of the internal abdominal ring : it is formed by what he calls the *fascia transversalis*, and is the passage through which the spermatic chord and the round ligaments descend. The chapter concludes with a comparison of the parts as they exist in the two sexes : from the greater breadth of the pelvis, the dimensions of the crural ring are necessarily larger in the female ; and on this account women are much more subject to crural hernia than men. This disease is thus described :

‘ The first symptom of the disease is pain produced on straightening the thigh, which extends to the stomach, and produces nausea, and when the thigh is examined, an absorbent gland may be more distinctly felt in that groin than in the other, and gives considerable uneasiness even on slight pressure. The first time this pain is perceived is generally at night, when the patient, after stooping to undress, suddenly rises and straightens the limb ; and it continues some time after he is in bed, obliging him to lie with the knees elevated, which posture soon relieves him. The cause of the pain on stretching the limb is the extension of the fasciæ of the thigh and the pressure which they make on the tumour.

‘ The first distinct external mark of crural hernia is a general swelling of the part easily returnable by pressure, descending in the erect and ascending in the recumbent posture, and which at first seems to be only the dilatation of the sheath that contains the crural artery and vein. The next appearance is that of a small circumscribed tumour, about the size of the finger's end, situated under the crural arch, about an inch on the outside of the tuberosity of the pubis, and lying in the hollow between this process and the crural artery and vein. As the tumour enlarges, instead of falling downwards like the inguinal hernia, it passes forwards and often turns over the anterior edge of the crural arch, this being the direction in which there is the least resistance. As it proceeds, the swelling increases more laterally than upwards or downwards, so as to assume an oblong shape, the longest diameter being in a transverse or horizontal direction. In the female, it is generally very moveable, and, being soft, and the skin not being discoloured, it has the appearance merely of an inguinal tumour of one of the absorbent glands : but in the male the skin is generally not so loose, the swelling not so distinctly circumscribed, and the tumour appears buried more in the substance of the thigh.’

We think that our professional readers will not object to a farther quotation, respecting the appearances on dissection :

‘ The crural hernia, when dissected, presents the following appearances : when the skin is removed, the superficial fascia of the external oblique muscle is laid bare, which, though it is of a delicate texture in its common state, when pressed upon by a hernia becomes extremely thickened and very distinct, more especially in a subject loaded with fat. Under this covering, there is generally another fascia, precisely of the form of the hernia itself, and which it very closely embraces. A thin fascia naturally covers the opening through which the hernia passes, and descends on the
posterior

posterior part of the pubis. When the hernia therefore enters the sheath, it pushes this fascia before it, so that the sac may be perfectly drawn from its inner side, and the fascia which covers it left distinct. The fascia which forms the crural sheath, and in which are placed the hole or holes for the absorbent vessels, is also protruded forwards, and is united with the other, so that the two become thus consolidated into one. If a large hernia is examined, this fascia is only found to proceed upwards as far as the edge of the orifice on the inner side of the crural sheath by which the hernia descends, but in a small hernia it passes into the abdomen as far as the peritoneum, and forms a pouch, from which the hernial sac may be withdrawn, leaving this forming a complete bag over the hernia. In a small hernia, the fascia is thicker than the sac itself; but by being gradually extended, it becomes thinner and less distinct; and in one example of this kind from the female subject, this and the superficial fascia have coalesced into one. I first observed this fascia in dissecting a male subject brought into St. Thomas's Hospital in the year 1800, who had a strangulated crural hernia on the one side, and a reducible one on the other. I next saw it in the operation performed upon Mrs. Bispham, and have since demonstrated it in preparations while delivering my lectures on crural hernia. It may be termed the *fascia propria* of the crural hernia. When it is divided, a quantity of adipose membrane is found between it and the sac, and when this is cut through, the peritoneal sac itself is exposed. Behind the hernial sac is the *fascia lata*, and the sac rests in the hollow between that part of it which covers the crural vessels; and that which passes over the pectineus and triceps muscles, so that the *fascia lata* is situated posteriorly to the hernia.

The diagnosis is, for the greater part, not very difficult: but the disease is the most easily confounded with the inguinal hernia, and such mistakes are of serious consequences, with respect both to the attempts that are made for the reduction of the tumour and to the method of performing the operation: since, in each of these instances, a different plan is to be pursued, according as the disease is of the one or the other of these species. In order to avoid this unfortunate error, the two following circumstances are laid down by Mr. Cooper, as the most obvious marks of distinction between the inguinal and the crural hernia; first, the neck of the inguinal hernia is situated above the tuberosity of the pubis, but that of the crural below it, and to its outer side; and secondly, if the sac be drawn down in the crural hernia, the crural arch may be traced above it.

As, on account of the structure of the parts, the crural is less frequent than the inguinal hernia, so for the same reason, when it does occur, it is more difficult of reduction, and more liable to become strangulated. In the 3d. chapter, we have this clear and accurate description of the method of employing the taxis:

‘The position of the patient is to be such as to relax the abdomen as much as possible, for which purpose the shoulders should be elevated, and the thighs bent at right angles with the body : but even this posture produces but little effect, unless the knees are at the same time brought together. If the parts are dissected directly with the view of observing what difference it made in the relative tension of parts in the dead body, it will be found that, when the thighs are extended, the crural arch and all its fasciæ are upon the stretch ; when the thighs are bent, but the knees turned outwards, the fasciæ are somewhat relaxed ; but when the thighs are bent and the knees brought together, the crural arch and its fasciæ are all extremely loosened, and still more are the parts loosened by throwing one thigh, when bent, across the middle of the other. When the body is in the recumbent posture, the thighs bent, and the knee thrown inwards, the surgeon is to place himself over the body of the patient, and putting both his thumbs on the surface of the tumour, he is to press gently directly downwards, as if he were endeavouring to press the tumour into the thigh rather than towards the abdomen. If this pressure is steadily kept up for some minutes, till the surface of the tumour is brought even with the line of the crural arch, the hernia may then be pressed towards the abdomen, and will return into that cavity. I am convinced that much of the difficulty found in returning this species of hernia often depends on the improper direction given to the pressure : for if the tumour is pressed at first towards the abdomen, it turns over the crural arch, instead of passing under it ; and then the utmost degree of force which may be applied will only endanger the bursting of the intestine, but cannot contribute to its reduction.’

If, however, the reduction be not speedily accomplished by the hand, other means must be adopted, viz. opium, the warm bath, the external application of cold, and the tobacco glyster : but it is observed that these remedies are less frequently efficacious here than in the inguinal hernia, because the parts concerned, being more of a tendinous nature, are necessarily less affected by those means which act only on the muscular power. It is therefore more essentially important not to delay the operation, both because any other means afford less hope of relief, and because the greater tightness of the stricture causes the mortification to come on with more rapidity.—The operation is next described through all its different stages ; the fasciæ which successively present themselves, and the different parts in which the strictures exist, are minutely detailed ; and particularly that which is formed by Gimbernat's ligament, which may be considered as the essential part of the disease. Mr. Cooper advises that it should be divided ‘upwards with a slight obliquity inwards.’—A number of interesting cases then succeed, taken from the practice of the author himself, or that of his friends ; and they

they are selected with the view of illustrating some particular opinion respecting the disease, or of warning the operator against some point of practice, the bad effects of which are not sufficiently known. It is from this laudable motive that we have the relation of a case which terminated fatally after the operation, in consequence of the sac being returned into the abdomen unopened, at the mouth of which, as it afterward appeared, the stricture was situated. Some cases are detailed, in which the operation was delayed until the intestines had advanced into a state approaching to mortification, and they all ended fatally. On this occasion, Mr. Cooper makes the following observation :

‘ These four cases strongly point out the danger of delay ; and so strongly am I impressed with this belief, that if I were myself the subject of strangulated crural hernia, I should only try the effect of tobacco glysters, and if they did not succeed after a judicious trial of the taxis, would have the operation performed in twelve hours from the accession of the symptoms.’

Two cases are stated, in which, by dividing the stricture of Gimbernat's ligament inwards, towards the *symphysis pubis*, according to the method recommended by M. Gimbernat himself, the intestine appeared to have been wounded ; an occurrence which determined Mr. Cooper ‘ never again to cut inwards, on account of the danger of tearing, as well as of cutting the intestine.’

The umbilical hernia is less frequent than the inguinal, but more common than the crural, and it is a less formidable complaint than either of them. Its diagnosis is simple ; its reduction is not, in general, difficult ; and the operation, when necessary, is more easy to be performed. It is well known to be not a rare occurrence with new-born children : but, by the proper application of a truss, we may hope to obtain a permanent cure. In adults, pregnancy is the most frequent cause of this disease : but it is also produced by excessive obesity, and it sometimes attends ascites. The circumstance which most frequently produces strangulation in the umbilical hernia seems to be over-distension of the stomach, from flatulent or indigestible food. When the taxis has failed, the hernia may sometimes be reduced by the operation of calomel in large doses, united with a small quantity of opium ; and when this is inefficacious, the tobacco glyster is frequently found to be beneficial : this remedy is indeed more successful here than in any other species of hernia. It does not, however, always produce the desired effect, and the operation must finally be performed. The author describes this process with his usual precision, and then relates, as on former occasions,

sions, a number of valuable cases.—The volume concludes with some account of the less frequent species of hernia.

The contents of Mr. Cooper's performance are intitled to our almost unqualified approbation, as displaying an extent of information, a solidity of judgment, and a spirit of candor, which are rarely united; it is indeed an invaluable present to the medical profession; and we are concerned that any circumstance connected with it should require our censure. Justice, however, forces us to recur to the objection which we stated in our review of the first part, to the expensive and unwieldy form in which the work is given to the public. On this subject, the author concludes his preface with remarking:

‘The size of the work has been objected to, and I am very ready to acknowledge its inconvenience, but I hope that this will be counterbalanced by the advantage of having all the parts exactly of their natural size, which gives a facility for making measurements, and ascertaining the relative position of parts, with as much accuracy as could be done by reference to the dead body.

‘With respect to the execution of the plates, I should think it unworthy of the importance of the subject, and (let me be allowed to add) of the pains which I have bestowed upon it, if I had had the paltry ambition of being the editor of *splendid* plates. My only object has been to give accurate and perspicuous engravings, such as may convey to the reader, as exactly as the pencil can do, the precise form and size of the parts which are exposed by the knife of the anatomist; and I shall consider myself as fully repaid for the attention which I have given to this subject, if my labours prove useful to those who, by being placed in less favourable circumstances than myself for actual observation, have not had the same opportunity of becoming acquainted with this disease, in the living or in the dead.’

It is painful to be obliged to expose the extreme futility of the arguments employed on this point by a man of Mr. Cooper's talents and respectability. The fact, however, is that, out of the 17 plates which accompany this volume, only three have the page nearly occupied by a single figure; in twelve of them, each plate contains several distinct figures; two have only one figure in each of about 9 inches square, although the extent of the page is nearly 23 inches by 18; and in the three large figures, the *essential part* is not much more than 12 or 13 inches square. We must farther remark that we do not perceive the alleged advantage of having the parts ‘of their natural size;’ nor how this circumstance contributes to ‘the facility of making measurements, or ascertaining the relative position of parts.’ Is not this purpose fully as well accomplished by having the figures formed on some known proportion to the natural parts? Does the architect find it necessary for the purpose of ‘accurate measurement,’

to draw his plans of the natural size? Even supposing it possible that some advantage may be gained by the present plan, we cannot comprehend the necessity for having the letter press of so stupendous a magnitude. Might not the three large plates have been folded into a moderate compass? No doubt, their *beauty* might have been endangered, but we cannot imagine that their *utility* would have been diminished. When this edition is wholly distributed in the cabinets of the curious, we earnestly hope that the author will condescend to publish his observations in a form which may render them *accessible to professional men*; and we will venture to assert that he will derive more satisfaction from the idea that, by reducing the price of his volume, he has put it in the power of a country surgeon to save the life of a fellow-creature, than from surveying Mr. Balmer's types and Mr. Heath's engravings.—A table of *Errata* requires the reader's notice.

ART. X. *An Inquiry into the State of the British West India Islands.*
By Joseph Lowe, Esq. 8vo. pp. 160. 4s. C. and R. Baldwin. 1807.

MUCH has lately been said on the subject of the state in which our West India islands are now placed by the circumstances of the war, and it is undeniable that their situation demands immediate and serious notice from the legislature. An inquiry directed to this topic is pursued in the pamphlet before us by a gentleman whose name is, to us, unknown in the annals of party, and who avers that he 'has no personal interest in the cause which he pleads:' but the manner in which he has treated it shews that he has at least made himself thoroughly conversant with the objects of his investigation; and we see every reason for giving credit to his profession that 'the reader will here be offended by no invective, and deceived by no misrepresentation. He will meet with proofs deduced from official documents, and with arguments not constructed on visionary theories, but on the basis, unfortunately too authentic, of actual experience.'

The contents of this pamphlet are arranged under three heads: '1. Of the importance of the West-India trade, as a national object; 2. Of the ruinous condition of this trade under the present circumstances, and of the consequences of its loss to the Country.—3. Observations on the means of relief; accompanied with some remarks on the effects of peace on this valuable traffic, as well as on the general commerce of

the kingdom.' It is justly remarked by the author that, though the whole of his pamphlet may afford interest to those who are connected with the West Indies, yet 'the general reader, whose attention is fixed more on the result than on the detail of the inquiry, will be chiefly interested in the latter part.' We shall, accordingly, bestow our principal attention on the observations introduced under this third head, which relate to a discussion of the utmost moment, and are in themselves by no means unworthy of their subject.

From the case here exhibited, it appears that little or no demand now exists on the continent, for British West India produce; and yet that the planters continue to grow the articles which they were accustomed to cultivate before the alteration in the foreign market.—The consequences of such a concurrence are obvious, and for the remedy we need not have recourse to much reasoning, since the lessons of past experience and the instincts of interest clearly point it out. No investigation, no enactments, can administer any other cure than one, to the evil under which the growers and dealers labour; unless, indeed, committees and senates possess the power ascribed by a late anonymous pamphleteer to the Emperor Napoleon, that of "changing the constitution of nature." This fact is so clear, that we shall allot no space to an examination of the palliatives which the present writer unites with the advocates of the same cause in proposing; but there is one expedient which, whatever may be its effect in the object which the author has in view, we cordially join him in recommending, we mean that of PEACE.

When Mr. Lowe had, rather idly, but we must admit agreeably, occupied us through the greatest part of his pamphlet with plans and schemes which amount to no more than ingenious trifling, it was matter of no small surprize to us to find our attention arrested and our whole soul engaged by a disquisition, to which neatness of statement and force of reasoning, combined with the vital and practical importance of the discussion, unite to give the highest interest; and which is here introduced because the author expects from it considerable alleviation under the pressure of the evil, to the removal of which his previous labours had been directed.

It is impossible for any one to display more of impartiality on all political questions than Mr. Lowe has here manifested; no man seems to be more free from party spirit; and if we are to understand that he is not connected with commerce, he appears to be well acquainted with its principles and interests. We therefore regard his suffrage on the present question as that of an unbiassed and qualified judge;
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and on this ground, as well as on that of the paramount importance of the inquiry, we deem it right to invite particular attention to this part of his pamphlet.

The ensuing passage will inform the reader of the manner in which Mr. L. treats this momentous subject :

‘ No measure which the wisdom of the British Legislature could devise, or the energy of the British nation execute, could so effectually relieve the hardships of our West-India colonies as peace. Its beneficent operation would be immediately felt in the diminished price of stores, insurance, and freight ; in the multiplied channels of export ; in the general security of the islands ; in short, in so many various ways that the enumeration would be endless. As peace therefore is so essential to the welfare of the West Indies, and so important to the national interests at large, I shall treat at some length of our prospects of concluding it ; of the terms that will probably be offered us, and of the influence of peace on our commerce and manufactures. I shall endeavour also to examine the foundation of the popular opinion, that our danger from France is greater in peace than in war, and what probability there is that a treaty with Bonaparte will be lasting.’

Mr. Lowe truly observes that, though the documents which passed on both sides during the course of the late negotiation with France have been now long before the public, it is obvious that the majority of persons have little attended to them, and that a strange misapprehension appears to prevail regarding them. ‘ Let him’, he says, ‘ who desires to form an unprejudiced idea of our conduct on that occasion, read the speech of Mr. Whitbread or the declaration of Lord Yarmouth in the debate of the 5th of January 1807.’

‘ Many apprehended that Mr. Fox in his anxiety for peace might commit the national dignity, and that Bonaparte might presume to address this country in the insolent tone which he assumes to his weaker neighbours. But they were not aware that the “hauteur” had been chiefly on our side, and that this mighty Emperor, who dictates laws to the Continent, had condescended to ask peace from England by the restitution of Hanover, and by sanctioning our possession in perpetuity, not only of the Cape, but of Malta, the object of the war, and the point of honour between the two nations.’

This anxiety was affected by some and really entertained by others : but it certainly was founded on a total misconception of Mr. Fox’s character. It is not, however, to be denied that, after the irreparable loss which the public sustained by the death of that great statesman, the “hauteur” was on our side,” as will appear by a cursory perusal of the papers. Yet Mr. Lowe is of opinion that, had not the sudden hostility of Prussia intervened, the negotiation would have ended in peace ; and he observes that France was ready to admit Britain’s claim

claim to interfere in the affairs of the continent, on condition that France should be allowed an equal privilege in maritime discussions.—He is adverse to our retaining a single West India colony : but Buenos Ayres he regards as desirable ; though, he adds, ‘ the difference of language and customs, and the incompatibility of religion, in the two countries, are powerful and permanent obstacles to render it an appendage to the British empire.’ Are we, however, become so fanatical and bigotted, that we will have no colonies but those of which the inhabitants profess our own religion ? In that case we shall have few colonies indeed ; and perhaps the evil will not be great : but we must reprobate the narrowness from which such a consequence is deduced. Has this been our practice ? Did we decline to add Canada and Trinidad to our foreign possessions because they were catholic, or Ceylon because its inhabitants were idolaters ? The author says that it is not our policy to revolutionize South America : but this fact is not clear to us ; and we wish that he had hinted at his reasons for the assertion. Why did we not attempt the emancipation of Buenos Ayres, rather than its conquest ? This we have been told was the desire of the inhabitants ; and we should, it is said, have had them to a man on our side, on this condition.

The author contends that we have mistaken the character of our mighty antagonist, by confounding the effusions of his passions with the deliberate resolves of his policy ; and he thinks that the injury, which we may at any time inflict on his commerce, will deter him from lightly infringing a peace once concluded with him.

‘ Had Mr. Addington’s ministry been skilful in apprehending the temper of their antagonist, and uniform in combining spirit with prudence, France and England might already have enjoyed several years of repose. That ministry made great concessions at Amiens for the sake of permanent tranquillity. They asked to retain nothing which might wound the pride of our rival. Had Bonaparte been a generous or magnanimous character, this moderation on our part would have assured the continuance of profound peace. But he construed our moderation into fear ; and when we remonstrated on his aggressions in Switzerland, he had the infatuation to tell us, that we had no right “ to interfere with the proceedings of France on any point which did not form a part of the stipulations of the Treaty of Amiens.” It is remarkable, however, that although he made this rash and arrogant reply to our remonstrance, he forbore from all further encroachments during the remaining period of peace. It is clear, therefore, that he did not intend to act upon so absurd and

• • Declaration of war, May 1803.’

violent

violent a declaration, although he could not controul his temper sufficiently to forbear from making it. He told Lord Whitworth, in the memorable interview of the 17th of February, 1803, that there was no alternative but the "evacuation of Malta or the renewal of war." Yet it soon appeared in the subsequent negotiation, that had we not, by the unfortunate message of the 8th of March, proclaimed our differences to all Europe, we might have kept Malta, and avoided war. Bonaparte, after hearing of that message, declared before a numerous assembly, "*Les Anglois veulent la guerre, mais s'ils sont les premiers à tirer l'épée, je serai le dernier à la remettre.*" Yet the event soon shewed that he was the first to make pacific overtures. Talleyrand, in the late negotiation, told Lord Lauderdale, "*Jamais l'Empereur ne cèdera un grain de poussière du territoire François.*"— Yet a short time after, his Lordship receives an overture, in which the Emperor proposes to give us both Pondicherry and Tobago. In another of these interviews, Talleyrand told his Lordship, that in forty-eight hours the fate of Hanover would be settled for ever. Yet Hanover is still unappropriated, and will be returned to us whenever we chuse to take it.—All these circumstances concur to prove, that Bonaparte's language, towards us at least, is in reality much less serious than it appears—that his declarations are at one time the ebullitions of an ungovernable temper, at another the suggestions of an artful policy. It follows that in negotiating with such a man, we must be prepared for a singular mixture of inconsistency and artifice—inconsistency when his passion masters his reason; and artifice when his reason resumes the ascendant, but receives a wayward impulse from his ambition. Our tone in the negotiation at Amiens was too moderate towards so intemperate a character; and on the other hand, the message of the 8th of March, 1803, conveyed a public affront which his pride was ill fitted to digest. In both respects, therefore, we unluckily mistook his temper. We now know it better, and the battle of Trafalgar has administered to him a lesson, of which the good effects will be long felt. To all inferior powers he will be a domineering neighbour; but we who possess such effectual means of awing his ambition, and chastising his aggressions, need only preserve a just mixture of prudence and firmness to maintain a permanent tranquillity with him. Confidence, at least personal confidence, there should be none; but what confidence has ever existed in this country towards France under any government? We may have, however, a solid ground of confidence as to the continuance of peace, from the losses which our enemy would suffer in war; and a still stronger confidence as to our own security, from a peace establishment of 60,000 seamen. War with England has always been unpopular in France. Their national vanity is mortified by perpetual defeat, and their individual comfort destroyed by the ruin of their trade.'

The very judicious and important observations contained in this passage must be our apology for inserting it. We are perfectly of this author's opinion with regard to our tone in the negotiation at Amiens; which was as much too low on that occasion, as it seems to have been too haughty at Paris.

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When Mr. Pitt mysteriously quitted office, it would seem that he could not endure that the vacant places should be filled by men of real talents; and though it would not perhaps be perfectly equitable to judge of his successors by the account which he himself afterward gave of them, this is certain that their imbecility occasioned Bonaparte to engage in proceedings which the national spirit would not brook, and the renewal of war was the consequence. The obstruction given by Mr. Pitt to the admission of Mr. Fox and his friends to power, at that time, we regard as one of his delinquencies which his country has perhaps the most cause for condemning and bewailing. Had that equally energetic and pacific statesman then been placed at the helm, we should probably have ever since lived in the continued enjoyment of peace.

Mr. Lowe thus combats a savage sentiment which is but too prevalent, and which has been openly avowed and publicly defended by such as affect extraordinary piety:

‘ Our national jealousy of France, and our personal hatred of Bonaparte combine to give popularity to the war, and it has even been said that “ perpetual war is preferable to any peace which we can make with our present enemy.” How weak and unfounded are such sentiments! Is our enemy not sincere in his desire for peace? has he not said that his ambition is to have ships, colonies, and commerce? And does he not know that another rupture will only expose his commerce to be again ruined by our navy? It is undoubted that the desire of peace, of permanent peace, predominates in the mind of Bonaparte, certainly not from motives of humanity, but from a conviction that a permanent peace with England can alone confirm his popularity in France.’

The fears of those who imagine that peace will enable France to rear a navy which will be formidable to this country are thus repelled by the author:

‘ It is said that he will build vessels in Holland, France, Italy, and Spain; all these countries will train seamen for his fleet. Let him train seamen and build ships of war, and let him renew the conflict after ten years of preparation. Let him send to sea a hundred, even a hundred and fifty sail of the line—he will in vain assail our unconquerable navy. In how few hours did twenty-seven British ships annihilate an enemy’s fleet of thirty-three sail of the line, drawn up in a position which gave them the full advantage of their superior numbers. No, it will be in vain for the enemy to build ships, or even to train seamen—these seamen must acquire the energy of Britons before they dispute with us the empire of the ocean. The navigation of the Mediterranean, the coasting, or even the foreign trade of Spain, nay, the coasting and foreign trade of the greatest part of France, are all very ill adapted to the training of real seamen.’

The remarks contained in the following passage have often been inculcated on the public, but we were not aware that views so just and rational were entertained among that higher class of commercial men for whom Mr. Lowe seems to write:

‘ It may be said, however, that although England is independent of France, the Continent is subject to her rule—that she has humbled Austria, dismembered Prussia, and intimidated even Russia. True, but a continuance of the Continental war, offered at present, no prospect of retrieving these disasters. Every battle of the last campaign has shown the superiority of the Russian soldiers over the French, but the inferiority of their officers has been equally visible. The same observation applies to almost all the unfortunate efforts of the Austrians. It is not that Austria and Russia want numbers, and still less that they want bravery, but wisdom is wanting in their councils, to give to that bravery a just direction. All Europe, except the Austrian Government, seemed to know that the cause of their reverses lay in the defects of their tactics; yet so blind was that Government, that after twelve years of experience, they entrust an army to General Mack. Surely while our Allies were thus infatuated, it was vain to desire a continuance of hostilities on their part against the vigour of a revolutionary government. Much better had we urged them to forbear war, and to improve their resources in peace for a future contest under better auspices. We are at last awakened to this truth, though many of us think that we have learned it too late. But it is not too late. Austria has twenty millions of subjects, and may double both the number and the resources of her armies by persevering in a liberal and enlightened policy. Russia is of all countries that which would gain most rapidly by a similar system.’—

‘ Under present circumstances, a contest by land against France is a vain effort, but if Austria and Russia will do in tranquillity what France has done in commotion, that is, if they will draw forth the talents of their subjects, and give to merit what they have hitherto given to favour and to rank, they may bid defiance to France and disdain her controul. So great a change, however, from inveterate customs, could not be produced by a sudden effort. Reverses in war were necessary to inculcate its necessity, and the repose of peace is requisite to accomplish its execution.’

After a few other observations, Mr. L. brings the question more home to ourselves:

‘ Having (he says) thus taken a view of the effects of peace on the Continent, let us turn to the still more important consideration of its influence on our commerce and manufactures. Here we may confidently anticipate the happiest consequences, for our success in these respects will depend, not on the doubtful wisdom of foreign cabinets, but on our own industry and energy. All we want for the prosperous exercise of that industry, is an ample field, and this field will be afforded us by peace. A most erroneous notion has prevailed, that since the beginning of the last war we have engrossed the commerce of the world; and that at a peace we should be obliged to forego a great part

part of this extended traffic. These singular illusions have arisen from our naval preponderance, and from believing, that because the mercantile marine of the nations at war with us had disappeared, it was therefore extinct. But we do not advert to the unfortunate truth, that our own mercantile shipping is in a state of rapid decrease; and to the still more conclusive fact, that the mercantile marine of our enemies navigates the ocean under neutral colours. On a late occasion, the House of Commons learnt with no small surprise, that soon after the beginning of the present war, the French mercantile marine was sold, or rather made over to the Americans, on condition of being employed under the American flag during war, and of being re-sold to the French ship-owners, within twelve months after the conclusion of peace. So far from engrossing the commerce of the world, during war, our industry is subject to restraints, both from taxes, and from interruption of intercourse with foreign countries, which would prove fatal to the industry of any other nation. Our navy commands the ocean, but can our navy open to our manufactures the markets of Spain, Germany, and France?"

A very important table is then added, exhibiting the total value of exports from Great Britain, in the years 1785—1805 inclusive, according to official returns from the Custom-House to Parliament; after which Mr. Lowe adds:

‘ It appears from this interesting document, that from 1785 to 1793, when the war broke out, the commerce of Great Britain was not only on the increase; but that the ratio of that increase was augmenting every year. For instance, the excess of 1786 above 1785, was three hundred thousand pounds; but the excess of 1791 above 1790, was more than two millions. Had peace continued, our exports would have increased, not only by two millions a year, as in 1791 and 1792—but by a *ratio progressively augmenting*. But what was the consequence of war? In the first year of war (1793,) our exports are lessened at once by five millions, and although this diminution is afterwards made up, the ratio of the peace increase was never recovered. Supposing we had continued at peace, and that our increase of exports had been only two millions each year, as was the case in 1791 and 1792, the amount of our yearly exports would have been sixteen millions greater than they are now. But these sixteen millions are official value, and in computing custom-house returns, it is customary to add sixty per cent. for the difference between the real and official value. Had we therefore continued at peace, instead of an apparent increase in our exports of sixteen millions, we should have had a real increase of twenty-five millions!

‘ Another striking circumstance is exhibited by this table of official facts. Look at the only year of peace which we have enjoyed since the commencement of this tedious contest, the year 1802. In that year our exports made a sudden start of nearly four millions above the preceding year of war. Look next at the immediately succeeding year of war. Our exports that year suddenly fell nearly ten millions below those of the preceding year of peace. Observe too, what has been

been their condition since that time. They have not yet risen to the amount which they had attained in the year of war preceding the peace of Amiens. So that since the year 1800, our commerce has been worse than stationary—it has been retrograde.’

The author next shews, in a most satisfactory manner, how groundless are the apprehensions of those who anticipate a dangerous rivalry to our commerce in the markets of Europe on the part of France ; and the conclusion of his remarks on this subject is equally creditable to his information and his liberality :

‘ We may rest assured, that our insular situation, our happy constitution, our unrivalled industry will give us a permanent superiority in navigation and commerce over France. But it is by no means our interest to ruin the trade of France. On the contrary, should we not desire that she possessed sufficient wealth to enable her to pay us for the manufactures which she buys from us, and which nothing but want of money will prevent her from buying in larger quantities? Without resorting at present to the infallible laws of political economy, I will merely put it to the good sense of the British merchant, whether it is not as desirable to rank the French and Spaniards among our customers as other nations ; and whether their custom is worth having, if they cannot pay us? To what was owing the surprising rise in our exports of 1802, but to orders from France, and with what other country was our intercourse formerly so lucrative?’

Facts which are within the knowlege of Mr. Lowe enable him very materially to strengthen his arguments in favour of that measure, which the dictates of humanity and the sense of our own burthens alike press on our consideration :

‘ The navigation of the whole world is passing into the hands of neutrals. They conduct not only the carrying trade of Europe, but they surpass the number of British shipping in the seas of India and China. The trade between Britain and North America, between North America and the West Indies, between Britain and Europe, from Memel to Constantinople—all is conducted by neutral shipping. Such are the consequences of a war of fifteen years.’

Mr. Lowe then considers the depression of the lower orders as a strong motive in favour of peace ; and he states that ‘ by the official return made to the House of Commons in 1803, it appears that no less than 1,200,000 inhabitants of England, and Wales (one eighth of the whole population) were dependent on their parishes for relief. We have since had four years of war, and every year their number has increased.’

Who will dispute the truth of the next paragraph ?

‘ If we look to the burdens of taxation on the middling classes, we shall find them scarcely less oppressive. The time is come when
instead

instead of perpetuating the war-taxes, or of laying on new impositions, the attention of Government should be most anxiously directed to a gradual diminution of those taxes, (such as the tonnage duty) which threaten our national prosperity in its source. It is obvious, that the means of this diminution will never be found in war, but in peace the increase of our exports would supply a surplus of which the yearly augmentation would surprise ourselves, as was the case after the American war, and even in the short interval of peace in 1802.'

'It is in peace alone, (adds Mr. L.) that the interests of Ireland can be completely identified with those of England, and the evils removed which unhappily prevent that fertile island from adding to the energy of the empire.' We are glad to find that the city contains men who sympathise with Ireland; and we rejoice to see thus repelled (may the instances multiply!) the selfish and unfeeling spirit which has been imputed to this class of our community.

Of the dispositions of Bonaparte to make peace with us, Mr. Lowe thinks no doubt can be entertained. We wish that our limits would admit of our entering into the reasoning, founded on the nature and interests of this powerful person, by which the author shews that a peace would be likely to prove permanent.

In these times of violence, when public law is not only grossly outraged, but when its obligations are abjured and its authority is set at naught, by statesmen in that country which heretofore had prided itself on being its chief sanctuary, it is gratifying and consolatory to peruse a tract abounding in sentiments not less wise and just, as we conceive, than they are humane and benevolent. We should deem it an obligation conferred on the public, if this interesting and intelligent writer would print the latter part of his Inquiry in a separate form; and we do not think that the friends of peace could better promote their wishes, than by giving to it the widest possible circulation.

A fourth edition of this pamphlet has been published, with a few supplementary pages.

ART. XI. *Considerations on the Causes, Objects, and Consequences of the present War, and on the Expediency, or the Danger of Peace with France.* By William Roscoe, Esq. 3d Edition. 8vo. pp. 135. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

It is remarked by Plato that the union of politics with philosophy is essential to the happiness of states: but this old-fashioned principle is discarded by some modern statesmen, who proscribe philosophy as the curse of the world. Their practice, however, has brought their system into
disgrace

disgrace ; and this nation begins to find that, by substituting passion for reason, by discarding all moral and physical calculation, and by listening to the clamours of interested in preference to the remonstrances of enlightened men, she has been plunged into unexampled difficulties. If, indeed, her eyes be not opened by the events which have occurred, her blindness is incurable and her destruction is sealed. As it might have been expected, after an avowed hostility to the principles of philosophic legislation, our cameliion politics assumed every hue and colour of opinion to serve the occasion of the moment ; and a long and disastrous contest has been prosecuted, for reasons which have changed like the figures of a magic lanthorn at the will of the shifter of the shades. At one time, we are at war for the *restoration of the Bourbon family* and for the *deliverance of Europe*, at another for *indemnity for the past and security for the future* ; now we fight to preserve ourselves from *the infection of liberty*, and now because we have an *horror of despotism* ; at one time we are at war to protect our allies and our commerce, and at another we are told that we have no occasion for either. Thus changing have been the *avowed* causes of the war ; and if an object, *not* uniformly avowed, has regularly kept alive the flame, it is now so desperate that it ought to be completely abandoned. Some persons, however, fearful of this, have maintained the doctrine of *perpetual war* ; while others have contended that any measure is lawful to ensure our success against such an enemy as Bonaparte.

Animated by a concern for our national character, as well as for our national prosperity, Mr. Roscoe endeavours to expose the futile reasons on which the war has been justified, to recall the attention of the country to the consequences which have resulted from its continuance, to review the pretexts for the attack on Denmark, and to shew that the apprehensions which many people entertain from peace with France are completely unfounded. Indeed, he pronounces the continuance of war to be an act of political suicide, and calls on the nation to endeavour by all constitutional means to avert its own destruction. ‘*If the war is to be continued,*’ he says, ‘it is now no longer a matter of exaggeration to assert that the sovereign of these realms is to contend for his crown ; the people for their liberties and rights ; for the soil in which their forefathers lie entombed.’ Indignant at a certain description of persons among us, who feed on the credulity of the nation, whose only hope is in the continuance of war, and who for that reason endeavour to exacerbate the feelings of the people and to widen the differences, already too great, which subsist between us and the enemy, Mr. R.

stands forwards with great manliness and energy to resist the arguments adduced by these champions of perpetual hostility, to reprobate our misconduct, and to prove that even under present circumstances the wisest measure is peace.

As it was admitted at the rupture of the negotiation in 1806, that the war was protracted rather for the interests of our ally the Emperor of Russia than for our own, it is fairly presumed that, since we are now released from all interference on behalf of his Imperial Majesty, a material obstacle to peace is removed : but, though political writers are induced to advert to the language of negotiators, and to state papers; absolute reliance should not be placed on this evidence in discussing the real merits of peace or war. Sincerity is a virtue in no estimation with diplomatists ; and as the *ruse de guerre* is with them in continual practice, we should not, without considering all the points embraced in the whole question, deduce inferences from their concessions and admissions. It is probable that the French suspected, in our negotiation with them in 1806, that we were insincere ; and that the large offers made at that period were designed to try us on that ground : in which case, we should not conclude that they are now prepared to meet us with similar advances. Though, therefore, it may be requisite, in taking a full view of the subject, to advert to the intercourse which we have had with Napoleon in the way of treaty and negotiation, this retrospect may not afford certain data towards ascertaining the nature of the peace which we are likely in future to make with him : existing circumstances must regulate this point ; and the great questions are, what is our actual situation, what are our prospects in the continuance of war, and what is the expediency or the danger of terminating it.

Since the last negotiation, a series of disasters befell our Imperial Ally which forced him to conclude at Tilait a treaty with France ; a treaty which, by the statements of Lord Hutchinson, was become absolutely necessary to Russia. This peace, observes Mr. R., ‘operated like a sudden shock on the British Ministry ; and in one of those paroxysms to which associations of men are no less liable than individuals, they eagerly grasped at the first idea that presented itself as likely to counteract its effect.’ Unfortunately for our national honour as well as our national security, this measure (the effect indeed of ‘a sudden shock,’) was adopted with too little deliberation, *et maiorum rerum audacia fortitudo vocatur*. [Sall.] It is scarcely credible that a government, which had been for many years at war for the express purpose of protecting the weak against the strong, and for maintaining those principles of public law which ought to be held sacred
by

By nations, should suddenly resolve on a step which must be as revolting to the sense as to the conscience of every honest man, whose sense is not clouded by fear or whose conscience is not seared by interest. Mr. Roscoe thus represents the transaction :

‘ Amidst all the convulsions which Europe had experienced in consequence of the revolution in France, the kingdom of Denmark had, by the wise and temperate policy of her ruler, been in a great measure preserved from the fatal consequences of those commotions which had overturned governments of much greater political importance. This had been accomplished not by humiliating herself to any of the belligerent powers ; not by espousing the cause of such of them as appeared for the moment to be successful ; but by maintaining a firm, dignified, and undeviating independence, neither influenced by intrigues nor intimidated by threats. Her naval and military establishments, though not great, were respectable, and combining with the natural advantages of her situation, might justify her in the hopes of defending herself with success against any enemy that should attempt to infringe upon her neutrality. In order to defend this neutrality, the Danish government had, for a considerable time past, concentrated its army on its continental frontiers ; and it has been stated, that *this measure was adopted at the instance of Great Britain*, as being favourable to the protection of her commerce. In this situation the British fleet, with a large military force, arrived on the coast of Zealand, where the Danish government saw no reason to recognize them in any other character than that of friends and protectors. They were there joined by the German legion from the isle of Rugen ; and Mr. Jackson the British resident at Copenhagen, according to instructions received from his court, demanded from the Danish Government the surrender of their navy to his Britannic Majesty, to be detained by him until the restoration of a general peace. This proposition was indignantly rejected ; in consequence of which the troops were landed ; and a proclamation was published by Lord Cathcart, the Commander in Chief, stating the motives and objects of such a proceeding, and threatening, that in case of resistance *the city of Copenhagen* should be desolated BY EVERY POSSIBLE MEANS OF DEVASTATION. Unprepared as the city then was, the Crown Prince gave orders that it should be defended to the last extremity. Of the Danish navy, not a ship was rigged, and the crews were absent. On the second day of September, the British troops commenced the attack, on three sides of the city, which continued for several days without intermission ; during which 6500 shells were thrown into the town, which was soon on fire in upwards of thirty places. The timber yards were consumed ; the powder magazine blew up ; the steeple of the cathedral church was in a blaze, and fell amidst the continual shouts of the British troops.’

Having adverted historically to the attack on Copenhagen, the author proceeds to examine the arguments by which the Ministry have attempted to vindicate this measure :

‘ The first argument relied upon is “ *the CRUEL NECESSITY which obliged the British sovereign to have recourse to acts of hostility against a nation, with which it was his most earnest desire to have established the relations of common interest and alliance.*” This passage contains the complete avowal of the principle upon which the British ministry acted. It presumes not only that the laws of morality and justice, and the rules of good faith which attach one individual or one nation to another, may be dispensed with from temporary motives, but that either of the parties has a right to judge of such motives, and to disregard those rules, whenever he may think proper. That this doctrine cannot be supported, must be apparent to every one, from the slightest observation of the consequences to which it must lead. At no period of society have mankind been so lost to the dignity of their nature and the interests of their association, as to avow it. Even states and sovereigns at war, under circumstances of the utmost exasperation, have rejected it with horror; and it may truly be said, that the establishment of such a maxim, even between belligerent powers, is all that is now wanting to complete the downfall of Europe, and destroy the hopes of mankind. Jealousy, hatred, assassination, poison, treachery, cruelty, and revenge, are its instruments, to be indiscriminately employed *as necessity requires*, and upon these grounds every crime and every atrocity may be equally justified.

‘ That such doctrines have of late been asserted in this country in the most open and profligate manner, is a dreadful symptom of that moral and intellectual depravity which precedes the fall of nations.’

In answer to the ground of justification from the information received respecting the designs of the French ruler on the Danish navy, Mr. R. allows the propriety of the interference of his Majesty’s Ministers, but he denies that the sort of interference which they practised was such as the case required.

On the third reason, *the example of France,—the exigency of the crisis,—the magnitude of the danger—and the necessity of the exertion of Great Britain*, Mr. Roscoe thus comments :

‘ Thus then, after all the accusations poured out by this country against the French Ruler; his unbounded ambition, his disregard of alliances, his oppression of friendly and neutral states, it is openly confessed that we have ourselves adopted a similar course of conduct, and intend henceforth to contend with him in the race of iniquity.—The example of France is now no longer *a warning*, but *a pattern* for Great Britain; and after having so long condemned the policy of Bonaparte, we are at length become converts to it and confess it to be right. Apostates to the cause of virtue, independence, and integrity, which we pretend to have so long supported, we now openly acknowledge that it cannot contend with that of iniquity and oppression. The *dread* inspired into the nations of the world by the French, is to be rivalled by the dread inspired by the English; and it must be owned that our first effort, as exhibited in our attack upon Copenhagen, gives us a fair title to that “ *bad eminence,*” which

which it seems is now become the great object of our ambition. Conquerors in open war have indeed been cruel and unsparring to their enemies; governments which have displayed an open hostility to more powerful states, or which, after repeated remonstrances, have persevered in maintaining alliances supposed to be injurious to a belligerent and successful power, have been changed or extinguished; but this is the first instance on record, where the capital of a long established nation has been surprised by the arms of a state in strict alliance, not only without notice and without remonstrance, but without the slightest charge of misconduct against either the sovereign or the people, and desolated *by every possible means of devastation*. It is impossible that any example in civilized history can be alleged to justify such an attack; and if a model is to be found, it can only be amongst the barbarian hordes of Africa.

A great want of ordinary calculation seems to have been manifest in this affair. Not even Cocker could have been consulted. That our loss has been greater than our gain must be obvious to any computing-house clerk, to say nothing of national honour. Have we not, in mere physical strength, left more with the Danes to be thrown into the hands of the enemy than we have taken away; and have we not excited and given a momentum to their resentment which, without this attack, could never have existed?

——— “What though the *Ships* be lost?
All is not lost; th’ unconquerable will,
And study of revenge, immortal hate,
And courage never to submit or yield,
And what is else not to be overcome.” (MILTON.)

Mr. Roscoe quits this unpleasant subject with considering the difference between the situation of this country at the close of the negociation in 1806, and at this period:

‘At that time she asserted her honour and demonstrated her attachment to her ally by the most rigid fidelity and the most important sacrifices. The consequence was, as might be expected, a great accession of respectability to the national character. At present she is stained with the blood of her friends, whom she has attacked by surprize, *by every means of devastation*; the result of which has been a general cry of horror and indignation against her, from one extremity of Europe to the other. Thus from that high and dignified rank which she had till that fatal moment supported, she was, by one atrocious act, degraded in the eyes of the world beyond what language can express.’

The consequences of this precipitate measure have been the loss of our allies, and a state of affairs unprecedented and hazardous. In order to prepare us for acting with wisdom and firmness, it is essential to know the truth; and in this view, he is the friend of his country who presents us with

an undisguised and unvarnished account of our real situation ;—an office which the present writer endeavours to execute :

‘ With a revenue which must necessarily diminish with the diminution of our commerce, occasioned by our total exclusion from the continent of Europe, we are now called upon for greater sacrifices, and have to bear alone the whole pressure of the war. Nor are these sacrifices confined to those of a pecuniary nature. In every contest that may henceforth take place between France and England, British courage alone must be employed, and British blood must flow. We are now effectually deprived of those powerful allies, who hitherto engaged the attention of our enemies, and rendered the continent the theatre of war ; and if the two countries are again destined to meet in the field, the next battle that will be fought will most probably be fought on English ground. Flushed with their victories over the nations of the North, and eager to terminate a war which has for a series of years required from them such exertions, the armies of France are returning once more to the shores of the Ocean, impatient for an opportunity of closing their labours in the humiliation of these Islands, and the destruction of their inhabitants ; who, if they now fall, will fall without a friend to regret them, or the arm of an ally to be raised in their defence. This sudden and unexpected alteration in our prospects is the more to be regretted, as instead of exciting those wise, temperate, and precautionary measures, which the exigency of the occasion requires, it is regarded, by the blind and bigotted promoters of the war, with the most stupid indifference, or the most ill-timed and preposterous confidence ; as if these Islands had been placed by Providence beyond the sphere of human calamity, or as if their inhabitants had merited by their virtues the particular favour of Heaven.’

After having painted our situation in terrific and we hope exaggerated colours, Mr. R. proceeds to brighten the prospect by endeavouring to shew that eternal warfare is not necessary ; and that a peace is still attainable, even such an one as will secure the honour and assist the prosperity of the country, provided that we seek peace in the true spirit of peace, and refuse to listen to those writers and orators whose study is to promote an irreconcilable enmity between us and the present Ruler of France ;

‘ We may have it yet, in all probability, if we can subdue our exasperated passions, artificially blown into a flame by those whose interest and whose gratification it is to hurry us on to our ruin ; men who are lost to every feeling of the true interests of their country, and who, in case its constitution should be subverted by a foreign power, would be the first, not only to testify their implicit submission to any government, however tyrannical it might be, but to direct its vengeance against those genuine friends of liberty and truth, who would, under every change of exterior circumstances, remain unchanged,

changed, and who, after having defended their principles in their lives, would seal them by their blood.'

In this declamation, as in some other places, Mr. R. evinces too much of the feelings of a party-writer, and points his period with that vindictive recrimination which is more animated than discreet: but his subsequent pages are more temperate, and contain some judicious arguments to enforce the policy of peace. Here, though he necessarily re-traces the ground occupied by the writer of the pamphlet noticed in our preceding article, the spirit with which his remarks are enforced gives them a new interest. He reminds us that Peace is the element of our prosperity; and that, though 'in a state of war Britain has her equals, in a state of peace she has none.' He combats the idea that France is naturally disposed to become an eminent naval power; and he is of opinion that an advantageous treaty might be concluded with that empire in its present state of greatness. Considering the real foundation of our national strength, it is asserted that 'the ratio of our increase in a state of peace must, independent of our present superiority, exceed that of France, in a degree proportioned to the superiority of our resources;' and we are cautioned not to provoke France to a naval rivalry with us, but sedulously to aim at those victories of peace which are "not less renowned than those of war."

'Notwithstanding the present appearances of increased hostility between Great Britain and France, there is reason to hope that by a seasonable and temperate exposition of the views of the two countries, the foundation might be laid for that state of tranquillity which is so greatly the interest of both.'—

'Instead, therefore, of devoting our exertions, exhausting our resources, and risking our very existence, in a fruitless and destructive contest, let us turn our attention to those incalculable sources of prosperity and independence which have hitherto been so unaccountably and so fatally neglected. Let us attend more to ourselves and less to our neighbours; convinced that if we had devoted one tenth part of those immense sums which have been so lavishly expended in foreign subsidies and fruitless expeditions, in promoting the arts, the agriculture, and the internal oeconomy of the country, we should have raised ourselves to a justly merited eminence, and should have added to our real strength, importance, and respectability.'

We are not surprized that this pamphlet has obtained an extensive sale*, because its matter is highly interesting, and that matter is on the whole very ably discussed. As we have perused it with much satisfaction, we hope that it will make a deep im-

* A 4th edition has been advertized.

pression. It is time for the nation to awake from its political delusion; and to be assured that its honour, prosperity, and welfare cannot be more effectually promoted than by wisdom, virtue, and peace.

ART. XII. *The Progresses and Public Processions of Queen Elizabeth*: among which are interspersed other Solemnities, Public Expensures, and remarkable Events, during the Reign of that illustrious Princess: to which are subjoined some of the early Progresses of King James: now first printed from original MSS. of the Times, or collected from scarce Pamphlets, &c.; illustrated with historical notes, by John Nichols, F. S. A. Edinb. and Perth. Vol. III. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nichols and Son.

SEVERAL years have elapsed since the first and second volumes of this laborious collection were presented to notice. The reference below* will direct our readers to the account which we then gave of the work; where they will find a general view of its design, with some extracts and remarks; and the purchasers of this volume will perceive that the diligent editor has complimented our Review, by inserting a portion of that article in the preface to his present publication. In this preface, after acknowledgements to several persons who had assisted the undertaking, some additions to the former volumes are offered. Numerous are the relations of *Progresses* which follow, some short indeed, and merely as they are specified by books of church-wardens, &c. but all of them sufficient to assure us that the good queen's reign was a bustling one, directed both by policy and amusement. The excursions were not chiefly made to very remote parts of the kingdom; and many around the metropolis might be considered as *visits*, though sometimes extended through two or three days, or more.

A very large account occurs, in the Latin language, of the queen's reception and entertainment at Cambridge in the year 1564, consisting of 150 pages and upwards; and we are told that it is here transcribed from a MS. purchased by the editor, at Dr. Askew's sale, in the year 1786. It is by no means an uninteresting article. Among the orations, the poetry, &c. which are here produced, some subjects of disputation are recorded. Of these, one question is "*Major est Scriptura quam Ecclesie Autoritas* †?" Another is an inquiry "whether the civil magistrate has a right to interfere in ecclesiastical affairs?" The debate is conducted with animation; and

* See M. Review for August, 1789, Vol. lxxxi. p. 131.

† "Is the authority of Scripture greater than that of the Church?" though

though some of the speakers appear to have been papists in heart, the protestant cause obtains the victory.

We find the queen at Coventry in the year 1565. "The mayor delivered the mace into her hands, and so kneeled down; and then the recorder presented unto her majesty a purse, supposed to be worth 20 marks, and in it about 100*l.* in angels, which her grace accepting was pleased to say to her lords, "it was a good gift, 100*l.* in gold, I have but few such gifts." To which the mayor answered boldly, "If it please your grace, there is a great deal more in it." "What is that?" said she. "It is," said he, "the hearts of all your loving subjects." "We thank you, Mr. Mayor," said she; "it is a great deal more indeed."—If her majesty did not frequently receive particular donations so bountiful, the new year's gifts, and others which occasionally occurred, amounted to a very large sum: but they might be equalled, perhaps exceeded, by those which it was thought requisite for her to distribute.

Elizabeth's reception and entertainment during the week which she spent at Oxford, in 1566, were equally splendid with any others: orations, dissertations, Latin sermons, disputations, and poetic effusions, were supplied in abundance, and the acting of plays was not suffered to be wanting. This narrative is accompanied by a large map of Oxford, 1566, together with seventeen plates of Colleges and Halls.

It is not practicable for us to enumerate the multifarious topics which this volume offers to attention: but it will be readily supposed that, while many instruct or amuse, some are less worthy of regard. It appears to us from these collections, and from general history, that this great queen lived in jeopardy as to her personal safety; and that her fears and apprehensions on the subject, notwithstanding her magnanimity, if too frequently, were yet too justly excited. Honour- ed and beloved by the greater part of her subjects, she had in the popish party adversaries who were bigotted, virulent, and implacable; while others, not less dangerous, were ambitious, totally unprincipled, and prepared for *any party*, or any measures, which might tend to gratify their wishes. A letter (in French) from the queen of England to Henry IV. of France, after his conversion, is said to be given 'from the original, in cardinal Mazarin's state-papers, in the library of the duke of Brunswick.' It is short, but spirited, and worth preservation; being honourable to the memory of Elizabeth, as proving that amid dangers, difficulties, and fears, on every side, and notwithstanding strong prejudices, great mistakes, and bad counsels, she was faithful to the protestant cause, and to the welfare of her subjects. Some verses on the

the queen's death occupy 230 pages; they manifest great labour, as well as acquaintance both with the *Latin* and the *Greek*. The sumptuary laws, published and enforced in the year 1580, reduced enormous ruffs to more moderate dimensions, and restricted swords to the length of three feet. "The French ambassador," we are informed in a letter of lord Talbot, "*(Mounswere Mounser)* ridinge to take the ayer, in his returne cam thorow Smithfeld, and ther, at the barre, was steayed by thos offisers that sitteth to cut sourds, by reason his raper was longer than the statute. He was in a great feaurie and dreawe his raper. In the meane season my lord Henry Seamore cam and so steayed the matt^r. Hir Ma^{tie}. is greatlie ofended with the officers, in that they wanted judgment."

Without farther regard to the *Tbreno-Tbriambeuticon*,* and various other particulars, we must now take our leave of this illustrious queen, and proceed to a few brief remarks relative to the king, her less deserving successor. A narrative of his 'departure from Edenbrough, 'till his receving at London,' is printed by Thomas Creede, for Thomas Millington, 1603. It is not an insignificant performance, but manifests sense and spirit, and will amuse and inform many readers. Its language also is rather superior to that which prevailed in those days, and its observations are occasionally smart, lively, and instructive; though its general air, according with the times, is that of *prerogative royal*.—The description of the reception and entertainment of James I. at the house of 'Maister Oliver Cromwell' is striking and impressive, when viewed in connection with those great events which, in the lapse of several following years, arose in that family. Maister Oliver treated his royal guest, with all his numerous attendants, and indeed all the surrounding neighborhood, in that generous and sumptuous manner which placed his house among some of the most distinguished on that memorable occasion.

Whether the experiment, as to strength and courage, which on a visit to the Tower the king and prince were prompted to make between the lion and the English 'mastiffe dog,' did them honour, or was an act of unnecessary cruelty, we will not peremptorily determine: but in an encounter with three of the latter, in succession, the lion was victorious, though much injured. 'The king (says the writer,) perceived the lion greatly to excede the dog in strength, but nothing in noble heart and courage.' It is sensibly added; 'the lion hath

* Such is the style of the *Cambridge lamentations* on the death of her majesty.

not any peculiar or proper kinde of fight, as hath the dog, beare, or bull, but only a ravenous kind of surprizing for prey."

It was in the year 1615, that the king was so highly delighted at Cambridge by the comedy called *Ignoramus*, acted in his presence; and it is not surprising that a ridicule of the common law should be acceptable to him, who was much more disposed to favour laws enacted by the sole authority of the Roman emperors. Such will be the case with arbitrary and tyrannical princes; while those of benevolent sentiments will have a prevalent respect for the benefit and welfare of the subject.

Here we check *our Progress*, and can only add that, besides engravings already mentioned, this volume presents to us a portrait of lady Jane Grey,—a view and plan of Elvetham, (or Eltham),—a decanter ornamented by queen Elizabeth,—a plan of the town and harbour of Dover, temp. Elizabeth,—and various Autographs, worked in the letter-press.

ART. XIII. *Picturesque Tour through Spain*. By Henry Swinburne, Esq. Embellished with twenty Engravings, by Watts, Medland, Angus, Mitan, &c. Folio, 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Orme.

THIS work is dedicated to Lord Holland by Mr. Orme, the publisher, but he has given no preface, introduction, or advertisement, to explain in what way he obtained possession of the drawings from which the copper-plate engravings here exhibited were made, nor at what time the views by the late Mr. Swinburne were taken. From turning to our account of this gentleman's "Travels through Spain in the Years 1775 and 1776," (see M.R. Vol. lxi. p. 138,) and comparing our extracts with the letter-press of the Tour before us, it appears to us that the descriptive part has little of novelty, and that the embellishments constitute the chief merit of this undertaking. The short notices, in English and French, prefixed to the plates, may probably be the work of the editor: but the long details at the end seem to be copied from Mr. Swinburne's travels long ago published. Surely the editor should not have offered a volume of this nature to the world without explanation; and have worked up old matter into the form of a new *Picturesque Tour*, with the date of the year 1806, which had been printed in a less ostentatious form nearly thirty years ago. A recent account of such a country as Spain would have been very acceptable: but we sustain a disappointment, when, after having attended the traveller through the most celebrated cities and towns belonging to the Spanish monarchy,

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we discover that we have been listening to an old instead of a new relation. If, however, we cannot approve this mode of vamping up old materials, we must do justice to Mr. Orme by stating that he has employed able artists in making the copper-plates from Mr. Swinburne's drawings, and that the stroke-engravings are beautifully executed. The subjects of them are *Burgos*, in Old Castile, *the Vale of Margal*, in Valencia, *the Bridge of Perpignan*, in Roussillon, *Seville*, in Andalusia, *Duenas*, in Old Castile, *Granada*, *Miranda del Ebro*, *Montesa*, *the Generaliffe or Alhambra*, a palace of the kings of Granada, *the Pass of Bellegarde*, the ruins of the *Castle of La Puebla*, in Biscay, *Gate of the Cid at Valencia*, *Barcelona*, *Ruins of the castle of Las Navas*, in Andalusia, *Madrid*, *Tower of Almenara*, *the Moorish Queen's private apartment in the Alhambra*, *Malaga*, *Oropesa*, and *Toledo*. These views cannot fail to convey a tolerable idea of the position, character, and external appearance of Spanish towns and edifices, and of the scenery of this truly picturesque country.

As the short accounts of places prefixed to the engravings may possibly be more recent than the letter-press at the end, which professedly constitutes the Tour, we shall venture to transcribe the sketch of *Malaga*:

‘ The ancient city of Malaga, seated on the shore of the Mediterranean sea, is a fortified sea port in the kingdom of Granada, 266 miles to the south of Madrid. That it was founded in a remote period, cannot be questioned; and the antiquaries affirm that it was built by the Phœnicians 800 years before the christian æra. It stands at the foot of a very steep mountain, upon which are two old castles, one which crowns the summit of the mountain, is called GIBRALEARO, and was built in the year 1280, by a moorish governor. The other castle, called ALCAZABA, stands but a little above the city, and is very strong of its kind, having a double wall, flanked by a hundred and ten towers.

‘ Malaga is a bishop's see. Its cathedral is a modern building of white marble, and deemed one of the handsomest in Spain. It is in reality a stupendous pile, begun by Philip II. while married to Mary queen of England, and their united arms are still to be seen over the door. It is said by some to be as large as St. Paul's, in London.

‘ This populous and well built city is of a circular form, surrounded by a double wall, with stately towers, and nine gates. On one side the sea washes its walls, and on the other runs the little river *Quadalquivirite*, over which there is a handsome bridge. A good harbour renders this city a considerable place of trade, and it is much frequented by the English, who send many ships hither annually for cargoes of wine and fruit. The port is rendered safe and commodious by means of a fine mole and quay 700 yards in length, with stairs for taking water, and several short stout pillars.

bars of jasper, to which ships are made fast by hawsers. It has also a chapel upon it, for the accommodation of sea-faring people.

‘ The country and grounds all around being covered with vines, and the greatest variety of delicious fruits, yield a very luxuriant and beautiful prospect both from the land and the sea. Its choice wines, raisins, oranges, lemons, almonds, and figs, are well known from the great quantities imported into England. Other foreign nations likewise trade largely at this port, whence it enjoys a considerable share of opulence. The wine we term Mountain, which was once in considerable repute in this country, and of which the consumption was consequently great, though of late other white wines have become more fashionable amongst us, is the produce of the vineyards on the hilly country in the vicinity of this city. Their cultivation requires but little trouble, for the vines are planted in rows, without props; the intervals are ploughed with oxen once a year, and the shoots are pruned, which is almost all the dressing employed on them. Formerly ten thousand butts of wine were shipped from this port every year; but the quantity is *now* (we are not told to what period this *now* refers) considerably diminished. The grapes of which the choicest raisins are made have the stem half cut through, and in this state they are left four days to dry and candy in the sun, before they are finally gathered.

‘ The mountains that surround the town, though they much increase the beauty of the prospect, render the place insufferably hot during the greater part of the year. To an unreflecting stranger, too, the narrowness of its streets might be deemed an inconvenience; but this, on the contrary, is an advantage, for it renders the current of air through them more brisk, and admits less sun. In winter, however, it is a delightful retreat for those who wish to enjoy summer all the year round, as you may here find the gardens adorned with roses in full bloom in the month of January, and have the sense of smell regaled with the fragrance of the orange groves.’

We know not whether we may regard this account as penned by Mr. Swinburne: but, whoever was the author, it conveys information, and therefore may not be unacceptable to most readers.

The English and French notices prefixed to the plates are not always exact copies of each other.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, For FEBRUARY, 1808.

HISTORY and ANTIQUITIES.

Art. 14. *Archæologia Græca*, or the Antiquities of Greece; being an Account of the Manners and Customs of the Greeks; chiefly designed to illustrate the Greek Classics, by explaining Words and Phrases according to the Rites and Customs to which they refer.

To

To which are prefixed a brief History of the Grecian States, and biographical Sketches of the principal Greek writers. By the Rev. John Robinson, of Christ's College, Cambridge, Master of the Free Grammar School at Ravenstonedale, in Westmoreland. 8vo. pp. 618. 12s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1807.

Mr. Robinson impresses his reader with no mean opinion of his erudition and industry, by enumerating the works consulted by him with a view to the present compilation: viz. Potter's *Archæologia Græca*, the Travels of Anacharsis, Lakemacher, Lambert Bos with Leisner's notes, de Pauw's Dissertations, and Cragius *de Republicâ Lacedæmoniorum*. In making out this catalogue, however, we doubt whether he has done himself complete justice, for he appears to us to be under considerable obligations to a book which he has entirely omitted to mention; we mean Dr. Harwood's Grecian Antiquities, published, in 1801, as an *avowed* abridgement from the too prolix treatise of Archbishop Potter. The disposition of the chapters is indeed somewhat different, but their internal arrangement and contents are almost precisely the same; and Mr. Robinson makes a few alterations in the language of his precursor, of which we shall give one specimen. The chapter on Military Armour and Weapons is thus opened by Dr. Harwood: "According to mythology, Mars was the first who wore armour. He employed Vulcan, a smith in the Isle of Lemnos, so eminent as to be deified and honoured with the protection of his own trade; although the people of Lemnos were afterwards branded with infamy for so destructive an invention; hence they are called Σιρρις, (Homer's Iliad α) and their country Σιρρις; (Apoll. Arg. 2.)." Mr. Robinson more elegantly writes: '*Mythologists inform us that Mars was the first who put on armour, and who perhaps for that reason was called the god of war. He is said to have employed for that purpose Vulcan, a smith in the Isle of Lemnos, so eminent in his art that he was deified, and honoured with the protection of his own trade. But the Lemnians were represented as the common enemies of mankind, and branded with infamy for so destructive an invention, and hence they were called Σιρρις (Hom. Il. α) and their country was denominated Σιρρις (Apollon. Argon. II.)*' We have transcribed as far as the quotation from Apollonius, for the purpose of remarking that Mr. Robinson's *figures* are Roman, while those of Dr. Harwood are Arabic, which throws a difference on the face of the work: but, allowing for that difference, and for variations of style similar to those which we have mentioned, this chapter, and many others in the volume, are exactly the same.

An additional book is introduced, which relates exclusively to the Government and Customs of Sparta: but, great part of it is to be found *passim* in Harwood, who extracted the matter from Potter, incidentally depicting the Lacedæmonian manners and laws, while those of Athens formed the leading subject of their descriptions.

In the Biographical Sketch of Greek writers prefixed by Mr. Robinson, we were a little surprised at the omission of the celebrated names of Archilochus, Alcman, Theopompus, Demetrius Phalæreus, Agathon, and others. Their works, indeed, are lost: but
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this reason does not justify the author's silence in regard to Tyrtæus, Longinus, Callistratus, Callimachus, Athenæus, and Theophrastus. Perhaps Mr. R. thinks that they do not fall under the description of *principal* writers. Still, we confess ourselves at a loss to discover a satisfactory reason for excluding the whole class of philosophers; nor does Mr. R. inform us by what means Plato, Aristotle, Epictetus, and Antoninus Pius, have forfeited the honour of his notice. This omission reminds us of the publisher who announced a *complete* edition of Shakspeare's works in weekly numbers, but stopped short, without having included the tragedies of Hamlet, Lear, Macbeth, and Othello.

Art. 15. *The History of the Town of Malmesbury, and of its ancient Abbey, the Remains of which magnificent Edifice are still used as a Parish Church, together with Memoirs of eminent Natives, and other distinguished Characters, who were connected with the Abbey or Town, (embellished with Engravings.)* By the late Rev. J. M. Moffat, of Malmesbury. 8vo. pp. 249. 7s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons.

In this work, the author has endeavoured to blend entertainment with dry antiquarian information; and, by occasional appropriate remarks and illustrations, to make it more interesting than it might otherwise have proved. After a concise history of the Town, an elaborate account of the celebrated Abbey is given; affording a view of monachism from its commencement, and various particulars respecting the different modes of architecture in religious edifices. In the section relating to the Borough, we have a statement of the rise, progress, and decline of the feudal system; and after a few extracts from Domesday Book, we are supplied with some explanatory matter, extracted chiefly from Blackstone and Wyndham's Wiltshire. In discussing the various subjects contained in this volume, the author has succeeded in interspersing much miscellaneous, yet connected information; his researches are elaborate, his reading is extensive, and his judgment is correct. He seemed to be desirous of omitting nothing that would leave his book incomplete, and the able manner in which it is executed shews the success of his endeavours. To those persons who wish to obtain information respecting Malmesbury, we therefore recommend this publication, as one from which they will receive considerable gratification.

Art. 16. *History and Antiquities of Stratford-upon-Avon, comprising a Description of the Collegiate Church, the Life of Shakspeare, and Copies of several Documents relating to him and his Family, never before printed; with a biographical Sketch of other eminent Characters, natives of, or who have resided in, Stratford.* To which is added, a particular Account of the Jubilee, celebrated at Stratford in Honour of our immortal Bard. With eight Engravings. By R. B. Wheler. 8vo. pp. 229. 7s. Ward, Stratford. Longman and Co., London.

Much useful information is here conveyed respecting the place which the work professes to describe; and so far the reader will find himself rewarded in the perusal: but of the arrangement we cannot speak much in commendation; the articles are in an ap-

parently confused order, and no table of contents elucidates the plan: the insertion of Latin quotations in the text, however explanatory, will to common readers have a forbidding aspect; and the monumental inscriptions, with the scarce documents relating to Shakspeare and his family, cannot in general be very interesting. Were a new edition required, we would recommend that those parts which are universally acceptable should be methodically arranged, and that such as concern more particularly individual families, and antiquaries, should be printed in a smaller type in an appendix.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 17. *A Letter to the Right Rev. Dr. Beilby Porteus, Lord Bishop of London, on the Subject of his Citation of the Writer before the Spiritual Court; on an unfounded Charge respecting certain Doctrines contained in his Visitation Discourse, preached before Dr. Gretton, Archdeacon of Essex, at Danbury, July 8, 1806.** By Francis Stone, M. A. F. A. S. Rector of Cold Norton, Essex. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Eaton.

We have heard of some clergymen who, in performing the offices of devotion prescribed in the book of common prayer, consider themselves only as readers, and not as persons bound to an adoption of the sentiments which this public form expresses: but we never met with so unequivocal an example of the kind as in the instance of Mr. Stone: who not only declares his disbelief of the prominent doctrines of the liturgy, and consequently avows his reading in the desk to be a mere matter of form, but maintains that the *posterior* engagement, into which he solemnly entered with his ordaining Bishop, rescinded the *prior* subscription to the articles. As far as argument is concerned, he makes out his case; but, if he be logically right, must he not be practically wrong? If he be a rigid unitarian, believing in the proper humanity of Christ, ought he to be the conductor of a trinitarian service? To read the Litany in the desk, and then to ascend the pulpit, and to tell his congregation that the worship of Christ is idolatry, is a kind of farce which ought not to be played off before christians assembled for the serious purposes of devotion and instruction. As to the prudence of the Bishop of London, in citing Mr. Stone into the spiritual court for his visitation sermon, we have our doubts; yet we cannot entirely approve the defence which is here made. If, however, conscience be put out of the question, it must be allowed that Mr. Stone takes very strong ground. He quotes the words of the engagement which he made with the Bishop at his ordination, to prove that, in *preaching*, nothing but his individual persuasion of the true sense of scripture was to guide him. One of the questions proposed to him in the ordination service runs thus: "Are you determined out of the scriptures to instruct the people committed to your charge, and to teach nothing, as required of necessity to eternal salvation, but that which, *you shall be persuaded*, may be concluded and proved by scripture;" to which the answer is; "I am so per-

* See Rev. Vol. liii. N. S. p. 333.

suaded, and have so determined, by God's grace." On this basis, Mr. Stone contends that he is liberated from the authority of the articles, and of the Bishops in the province of preaching; and that he is at full liberty to declare his *own individual sense* of scripture, without attending to its agreement or dissonance with the doctrines read in the desk. He observes:

'These engagements, my lord, liberate me from all obligation to consider, whether the doctrines advanced in my visitation discourse be agreeable or disagreeable to certain theological positions maintained in "some one," or in "more of the" thirty-nine articles: I deny their authority over my conscience, in points of faith, of human invention, or interpretation.—Thus liberated, I have no more concern with them than with the reveries of the Koran, or with the fables of the Talmud. It is futile, therefore, to accuse me of "revolting from, impugning, or depraving" them, as I am justified by these my solemn engagements with my ordaining Bishop, to treat them as so many non-entities, as far as respects my instruction "of the people committed to my charge,"—and to be solicitous only to teach them what I am persuaded or convinced is "agreeable to the word of God," or gospel truth, and that alone.'

After this vindication of his *christian liberty*, Mr. Stone proceeds to inform the Bishop how he himself should have acted had the case been reversed; stating the sort of language which, had he been a Bishop, he should have employed, against an unitarian preacher in the established church; and he concludes with subscribing himself 'his lordship's injured fellow servant *in the Lord*.'

Art. 18. *A Collection of Evidences for the Divinity of our Lord Jesus Christ.* By the Rev. A. Freston, A.M. Rector of Edgeworth, Gloucester. 8vo. pp. 86. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

This work is intended as an antidote to the Unitarian doctrine preached by Mr. Stone in his visitation discourse*; and after so bold an attack on the Trinitarian faith by one of the members of the national church, we are not surprized that some champion should appear to check the heresy so exultingly avowed from spreading among the established clergy. The rector of Edgeworth, like the rector of Cold-Norton, quotes the sixth article,—which declares that "whatsoever is not *read* in H^ly Scripture, nor may be proved thereby, is not to be required as an article of faith,"—as containing a wise principle in the settlement of christian doctrine; and he proposes to examine Holy Scripture for this purpose: but in the very *prospectus* of his undertaking, he introduces a term which certainly is not to be *read* in scripture, *very God of very God*, and gives himself unnecessary trouble, (or, as the lawyers would say, travels out of the record,) by adducing the testimony of the Fathers, when the question is what can or cannot be proved *solely by the Scriptures*. The matter is truly important, and ought to be closely argued.

Mr. F. comprises the substance of the evidences, which he produces in favor of the divinity of Christ, under six heads:

* See Rev. Vol. liii. N.S. p. 333.

‘ Under the First, I shall comprise (he says) the Description of the Messiah in the Old Testament.

‘ Secondly — I shall bring forward our Saviour’s Assertions respecting himself; Assertions totally inconsistent with the humility and piety of his character, if he were any other than *very God of very God*.

‘ Thirdly. — I shall adduce from Scripture, and from History, the Opinions of his Friends concerning him.

‘ Fourthly. — I shall take advantage of the Concessions of his Enemies.

‘ Fifthly. — I shall endeavour to answer some Objections which have been made to this doctrine.

‘ Sixthly — The sixth Section will contain a brief recapitulation of the Argument, or Synopsis of the whole Work.’

Among the concessions of enemies, the Koran is quoted: but surely a reference to this book is unhappy; for here it is expressly said that “God is not the third of three.” (See Sale’s Koran, Chap. 5.) We lay no stress on this evidence: but an author, when he quotes, should be cautious. We suspect that some of Mr. E.’s testimonies, and some of his answers to objections, will excite a smile in Mr. Stone, and in other unitarians: but we wish not to make ourselves a party in the controversy, and shall only say of the reasoning in this pamphlet, *valet quantum valet potest*.

Art. 19. *Parochial Discourses for the Information of the Common People*, upon the Advent of Christ, and other Events relative to his Mission and Character. To which are added two Assize Sermons, preached at the Lent and Summer Assizes holden at Chelmsford, 1796. By W. H. Reynell, M. A. Minister of Hornchurch, Essex. 8vo. pp. 227. 5s. Sewed, Cadell and Davies.

Professing to write for the benefit of the uneducated, this author has endeavoured ‘without affectation of novelty, of fine writing or of learning, to communicate by common place arguments, taken from scriptural history, as it is read in our English translation of the Bible,’ a practical knowledge of the religion which they profess. He undertakes particularly to illustrate the connection which subsists between the two parts of divine revelation; and we agree with him in thinking that this is very necessary to a clear elucidation of the sacred scriptures: but we are also of opinion that, in the execution of such a task, especially for the advantage of the common people, we ought to guard against the influence of fancy and system, which often seduce commentators to bring texts and circumstances together, that have not the smallest reference or relation to each other. The history of the Bible is rather perplexed than elucidated by this conduct, into which Mr. R. is too often betrayed in these parochial discourses. We shall quote an instance or two: ‘When Balaam says, “let me die the death of the righteous!” to whom do his words more directly apply than to the Saviour dying on the cross?’ Can, however, the common people who read the scriptures have any idea that these words refer either directly or indirectly to the Messiah; or that Balaam, in wishing that “his latter end might be like

like the righteous," had any reference to the Saviour dying on the cross?—Mr. R., in the sermon on Innocents' day, very correctly states to his readers that the expression in the Evangelists; "*then was fulfilled*," does not always mean direct accomplishment, but rather refers to circumstances of correspondence or description; and if this fact be admitted, we ought not, without any warranty from the N. T., to be precipitate in converting every circumstance in the O. T. into a type or a prophecy. Mr. R. notices the silence of our Lord and his apostles on the murder of the Innocents by Herod, and observes that there is nothing in the Gospel like allusion to their catastrophe, except we conjecture that our Saviour adverted to it, in saying "suffer the little children to come unto me, for of such is the kingdom of heaven:" but we must ask, can plain people who read this passage with its context imagine such a reference? We may venture to say that it is utterly impossible.—It is added in the same sermon that there "is perhaps a presumed allusion in the epistle for Innocents' day, (Rev. XIV.) where they are stiled "the first fruits unto God and to the Lamb," and being there described as eminently blessed and sound without fault before the throne of God, we have encouragement to believe, that all children who die before they arrive at an age of the knowledge of good and evil, are received into the bosom of their Father who is in heaven: which takes away every scruple concerning the old topic of dispute; original sin." This doctrine can be deduced from other premises, if the passage, which is "*perhaps a presumed allusion to the murdered Innocents*," be found in fact to allude to others.

As calculated to render common hearers acquainted with the historic circumstances to which reference is made in the offices and festivals of the Church, these sermons will be found useful. The preacher cautions them against considering the *formal* part of the rite of baptism as a spell or charm, and counsels them to be properly solicitous for the religious education of their children, as well as for their own improvement in divine knowledge by the study of the Scriptures.

The two assize sermons annexed have for their title "*Law dependent upon Religion*," and clearly establish this important principle.

Art. 20. *A Second Defence of Revealed Religion*, in two Sermons, preached in the Chapel Royal, St. James's. By Richard Watson, D.D. Lord Bishop of Landaff. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

Judging from mere internal evidence, we should never have conjectured that these sermons were the compositions of the ingenious and philosophical Dr. Watson; and they are so very inferior to his former productions, that we could almost doubt the testimony of the title-page which assigns them to his pen. Indeed, we do not remember to have any where met with argumentation more lame and inefficient. In his defence both of Revealed Religion, (the subject of the first discourse,) and of the doctrine of Atonement, or moral substitution, (the subject of the second,) he evinces logical quibbling instead of sound reasoning, and affords rather matter of triumph than of mortification to the Infidel and the Socinian. The Divine

Mission of our Blessed Saviour can be more satisfactorily supported than by such logic as the Bishop of Landaff employs in the following passage:

‘Many Heathens and many Jews, contemporaries with Jesus and his Apostles, embraced Christianity on its first promulgation; the descendants of these men, in a direct line from father to son, may amount to about seventy persons: ask one of these descendants why he believes the Christian Religion to be true—he will answer, his father believed it to be true, his grandfather believed it to be true, all his progenitors, amounting to about seventy persons, believed it to be true; but that the first of them did not merely believe, he knew it to be true, for he had been an eye witness of the miracles wrought by Jesus, or by the Apostles in the name of Jesus.

‘To this an unbeliever may reply—Ask a Jew why he believes the Christian Religion to be false—he will answer, his father believed it to be false, his grandfather believed it to be false, all his progenitors, amounting to about seventy persons, believed it to be false; but that the first of them did not merely believe, he knew it to be false. I deny the conclusion; the seventieth progenitor of the Jew did not know the Christian Religion to be false, for he did know that Jesus and his Apostles wrought miracles; and no religion can be false which has real unquestioned miracles for its foundation.’

We cannot perceive with what shadow of propriety the Bishop can deny the conclusion from the Jew’s premises, after having rashly ventured (which the cause does not require) to erect an argument in favour of Christianity on the descent of faith from father to son. As far as these kinds of assertions avail, (and they avail nothing,) the unbeliever of the present day has equal reason for maintaining that the regular descent of infidelity from one Jew to another is as valid an argument against Christianity, as the regular descent of faith from one Christian to another is an argument in its favour. What would be said of a similar adduction of the truth of Mohammedanism?—We think, also, that the infidel will smile at the Bishop when he asks, ‘who can say that the occurrence of miracles in particular ages are not a part of an infinite chain of causes and effects?’ for this is in fact asking whether Miracles be natural events.

On reviewing his first sermon in the course of delivering the second, Bishop Watson pronounces it to be ‘close and logical argumentation:’ but we can find little of this quality in either discourse. That his explanation of the vicarious sacrifice is laboured, and as unsatisfactory to himself as it must be to all his readers, the conclusion will shew:

‘You perceive (brethren) from what has been said, that the opinion of the speaker *leans* to that of those who give a literal rather than a figurative interpretation to those texts which represent Christ—as “laying down his life for his sheep—as purchasing the Church with his blood—as putting away sin by the sacrifice of himself.” There are many other men, both in this and in other countries, of great piety, probity, and learning, who reject a literal interpretation as irreconcilably hostile to the justice, the benignity, the holiness of the Almighty.’

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Though Dr. W. endeavours to *lean* towards the doctrine of Atonement, he seems to take this obliquity against his will, and as an orthodox divine he acquits himself with no success. Even with all his logic, he makes little progress with his *free* grace, clogged by *previous* and *subsequent* conditions.

L A W.

Art. 21. *Some Observations on the Constitution and Forms of Proceeding of the Court of Session in Scotland; with Remarks on the Bill now (lately) depending in the House of Lords for its Reform.* By John Peter Grant, Esq. Advocate and Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 135. 5s. Clarke and Sons. 1807.

If any persons have an interest in retaining in force an oppressive law or burthensome usage, we hear of nothing but the wisdom of our ancestors, and the danger of innovation: but on other occasions the same persons violate the maxims of these same ancestors with very little scruple. Our good forefathers thought that measures and regulations which respected our internal concerns were matters of the first importance, but the fashion has of late much changed in this respect; and it has become the mode to represent the pains which statesmen bestow on such discussions as no better than mere inaction. The learned gentleman before us is no convert to this doctrine, but highly applauds the late proposition for a reform in the Court of Session in Scotland. We have already had occasion to advert to the grounds of this great regulation, (see Rev. Vol. liii. p. 440.) which are here stated in a very masterly way; and the whole tract shews the liberal mind, the philosophical spirit, and the respectable attainments of the author. One feature of this measure, as proposed by Lord Grenville, if our information be correct, is omitted in Lord Eldon's bill, (which supersedes that of Lord G.,) namely that of trial by jury in civil causes; an omission which our habits and notions would have led us to regret, even if we had not perused Mr. Grant's observations on this point, which are very happy and forcible. Speaking of it, he thus concludes his pamphlet:

* The trial by jury in civil causes possesses so many, and such obvious advantages, as to require, one should think, very little illustration. Some of its advantages for determining a particular cause, it has been already attempted to point out. But these are very far from constituting all that it possesses. Those it produces in a political view are of yet more extensive importance. Not only do a certain number of plain men appear better adapted for determining on the truth of a plain fact, and keeping it separate from any notions of legal inference of which they know nothing, or subtle and frivolous doubts and conjectures to which they are quite unaccustomed—not only is it impossible to confound before them the plain fact, which they see and apprehend, with intricate matters of law, of which they profess to be ignorant, and with which they feel they have nothing to do—not only are all the attention, all the recollection, all the best feelings of the judge more completely called forth in collecting the facts, and in stating the result, as it occurs to his own mind, to a jury of plain and independent men,

when he knows that these men have their whole minds bent upon watching his procedure, and that they early form their opinion not merely of the cause but of him; but besides these circumstances, that are sufficient of themselves to recommend it, the trial by jury stamps in the breast of every inhabitant of the country, the feeling that he himself is connected with the administration of its justice. On the one hand it diffuses generally the knowledge of how justice is administered; and on the other, it imparts to the judges the conviction that their conduct is matter of universal observation and criticism. But enough has been said on the subject. The objections to trial by jury in civil causes cannot but be trifling and minute. Its advantages are great and extensive. It were almost sufficient to say, that where justice has been ill and partially administered, there have been no juries; wherever there have been juries, its course has been uniform, satisfactory, and unimpeachable. With those who have had an opportunity of witnessing these different modes of its administration, the introduction of juries would alone be sufficient to secure to the present proposition their most warm and hearty concurrence. But this, though its leading feature, though that which alone would bestow many of its advantages, and without which none of them could be secure, is not its only claim to approbation. It goes further into the evils complained of, and applies itself to their removal with as much simplicity in its mode of acting, and as much promise of efficacy in its effects, as can be well conceived to exist in a measure of so extensive and so complicated a nature.

‘On the whole, it promises to give to Scotland the greatest boon she has ever derived from the legislature—the greatest boon any legislature can bestow—the substitution for an inefficient, a tedious, an unsatisfactory, and an uncertain administration of justice between man and man, a system of judicial proceeding in every respect accommodated to the encreasing fortunes of a flourishing, and intelligent people.’

Art. 22. A Digest of the Bankrupt Laws; with a Collection of the Statutes, and of the Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Law and Equity upon that Subject. By Basil Montagu, of Gray's Inn, Barrister at Law. 3 Vols. 8vo. 3l. 3s. Boards. Butterworth.

That among those who profess the law, many are not wanting who are distinguished by a laudable ambition, and by meritorious industry, is sufficiently well known; but their efforts are directed to the accumulation of wealth, or to success in their profession, while they are contented with the fame which is confined to their own circle. Those who appear in the character of authors, it should seem, feel an entire indifference to distinction in that line: for to the merit of presenting luminous views of the doctrines of law, acute criticisms on past decisions, and ingenious disquisitions on nice points, scarcely one writer in an age aspires; and rarely do we meet with a legal author who bestows pains on the distribution of his matter, the choice of his terms, or the structure of his style, in all which respects the admirable commentaries of Mr. Justice Blackstone afford

ford so fine a model. Legal works, as is exemplified in that masterly performance, admit of perfection in the didactic style; and by acquiring this species of excellence, we conceive that the young lawyer, while he served our literature and attained a name in the republic of letters, might at the same time lay a foundation for his own eminence in his profession.

The present performance is stated to be the result of many years of consideration. It is chiefly distinguished by the aim at method which it indicates: but this is less manifested in profound views and accurate analyses of the subject, than in those formal divisions which logicians have been in the habit of applying on all occasions. It is, however, a monument of laudable assiduity; and the abridgement of the decided cases, of which the second and third volumes consist, will render it particularly acceptable to those who are not furnished with the numerous works from which they are selected.

WEST INDIES.

Art. 23. *The Radical Cause of the present Distresses of the West India Planters pointed out; and the Inefficiency of the Measures which have been hitherto proposed for relieving them demonstrated.* By William Spence, F.L.S. 8vo. pp. 103. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

Though Mr. Spence has been unable to persuade us to discard Adam Smith in order to entertain his new light, and to join him in an idle attempt again to set up a discarded sophism of a fallen sect, (see our last No. p. 80.) and in overlooking the mighty influence which commerce has on production, he has fully satisfied us, and will convince all his readers, that the case of the West India Planters is no other than the simple and too frequent case of persons who have overstocked the market with a given article; and that it admits of no other effectual remedy than the ordinary cure, viz. that of diminishing the produce. This matter is thoroughly sifted in the present pamphlet: but at the close of it, the author unfortunately introduces the notions promulgated in his former publication, and displays in a glaring light his inattention to that part of political economy which respects the causes of production. While, therefore, the concluding pages of the work are thus contaminated with egregious errors, the preceding, and by far the greater part of it, is ably and judiciously executed.

We cannot allow Mr. Spence to be a successful theorist, but we admit him to be an animated and dextrous controversialist. In the sound part of these pages, he shews much discrimination in exposing the sophisms, and qualifying the conclusions, of the advocates of the planters; and with equal felicity, he proves how groundless are many of their complaints, and how futile and preposterous are some of the expedients which they wish the country to adopt in their favour. While he warns the state against the enactment of regulations which would be not less ineffectual than oppressive, he very properly admits the claims of this important and respectable body to the sympathy of the public, and also to relief, if any, scheme of administering it, that is equitable and practical, could be suggested.

Those are important chapters in political economy which teach that trade should be free, and that it rarely happens that it is not injured when governments interpose to regulate it. This is the part that principally bears on the subject of which Mr Spence here treats ; and while he betrays the most superficial ideas, if not a total ignorance, of the fructifying operations of commerce, and of its general beneficial influence, he shews himself to be perfect master of the heads which apply to the case of the planters. It is, however, no uncommon thing to have just views of parts of a system, and to be able to apply them with success, though as a whole it is comprehended very imperfectly ; and a man may be able practically to avail himself of particular heads, while he is absolutely incompetent to grasp the whole, to criticise and qualify it, and to ascertain all its bearings.

POLITICS.

Art. 24. *Commerce defended.* An Answer to the Arguments by which Mr. Spence* and others have attempted to prove that Commerce is not a Source of National Wealth. By James Mill, Esq. Author of an Essay on the Impolicy of a Bounty on the Exportation of Corn. 8vo. pp. 154. 4s. C. and R. Baldwin, 1808.

The title of this tract might be supposed to point at a half civilised country, or at a despotic government which dooms to the exercise of arms all those who are not necessary to the labours of agriculture : for little would any person think that such a vindication as the present could be requisite in a state, which has risen to unprecedented power and prosperity by means of that object which is here *defended* ; and that boasts of writers who have investigated its nature, determined its province, and developed its effects, so as to leave those of other nations far behind them in that vast field.

Mr. Mill is aware of all the vulnerable points of his antagonist, and his thrusts are well aimed, and are rarely made without effect. It would seem that Mr. Spence had never bestowed a thought on the indirect influence of commerce on production ; or rather, if he had not expressly admitted it, that he was in no degree aware of such influence ; indeed, Mr. Mill himself appears to us not much to have considered this circumstance, which requires only to be duly appreciated, and placed in a proper light, in order to expose in open day the fallacy and monstrous absurdity of Mr. Spence's positions. It is on this oversight, and on the universally discarded tenet of the economists in regard to productive labour, that the strange superstructure rests which is said (*mirabile dictu* !) to engage the admiration of that fine genius, the revered judge of the Admiralty ! In the discussion on certain orders of council connected with this subject, we sincerely wish that this eminent person, while defending them, would state in his perspicuous and elegant language the principles and doctrines of the new professor of political eco-

* See our last Review, p. 80.

mony! This would indeed be a triumph to Mr. Spence, whatever may be the fate of his tenets; and it would certainly be a high gratification to every man of taste, if the lecture should, as such things sometimes do, present itself to the public eye.

Our readers will not be displeased here to meet with the sentiments of an intelligent writer on a measure on which we refrain from giving any opinion, till we become better acquainted with it:

‘The fact is, the British commerce has much more to fear from the injudicious regulations of the British government, than from the decrees of Bonaparte. The great instruments of that species of traffic, which must now be carried on with the Continent, are neutral bottoms. It will not be very difficult, however, for our ministers to put it out of the power of the neutrals to serve us in this important capacity. The late orders of council are of a nature to give effect to the decrees of Bonaparte, beyond any thing which the plenitude of his power could achieve. Instead of thwarting and restricting the intercourse of neutrals, Britain ought studiously to afford it every facility and accommodation. Wherever a neutral vessel obtains admittance into a continental port, means are afforded for introducing British goods.’

We omit to notice a few minute errors and oversights in this pamphlet, in order to testify, as the friends of humanity and our country, our acknowledgements to the able author for his judicious observations on the necessity and expediency of peace.

Art. 25. Present State of the British Constitution historically illustrated. By Britannicus. 8vo. pp. 182. 3s. Longman and Co. 1807.

If this pamphlet does not manifest deep research and brilliant criticism, it contains just, important, and for the most part accurate observations on a subject of the highest interest; and to men whose leisure and means of information are confined, this account of the origin and progress of our rights and liberties will be highly acceptable.

We are as zealous in vindicating a free press as this writer, but we cannot hold it to be the pure unalloyed blessing which it is here represented, since, like all other good things, it is liable to be abused. Its conduct on a late occasion was perhaps the principal cause of the present war, and we regard it as now interposing very material obstacles in the way of peace. It is not only at the service of the weak, the ignorant, and the prejudiced, but it lends itself to the speculators on the bad passions of men, and to the venal, who make the most active use of it. Yet we must admit that these are partial evils, and its general benefits we have neither inclination nor interest to controvert.—We must also object to the unlimited compliments which the author pays to public opinion. It is often long deceived, and if it becomes right at last, this is all that can be said. The writer approves as little as we do of its late adoption of the No Popery cry, of its approbation of the Copenhagen expedition, and of its anti-pacific turn. We admit its great services; and it is only against unqualified commendation that we speak.

Art.

Art. 26. *An important and infallible Secret discovered and developed in the Laws of Human Nature, to render the Valour of British Soldiers and the Freedom of British Citizens invincible.* Addressed to the British and American Nations. 8vo. 2s. Eger-ton.

Every fungus of the brain now shoots up and becomes a pamphlet. The conceit of the present writer (who appears to be a military man) is that the British people display a *peculiar spirit of sympathy in association*; and that this spirit, which augments physical force, when properly brought into action, must render Englishmen superior in force to all mankind. The simple maxim that *an Englishman will stand by his comrade* is here magnified into a wonderful discovery, and communicated with a great parade of phraseology.

Art. 27. *Thoughts on the Catholic Question.* By a Protestant of Ireland. 8vo. Pamphlet. Printed at Chatham, and sold in London by Budd.

To determine the important question, "should the restraints against the Catholics be continued or repealed?" this writer institutes three distinct points of inquiry: 1. Whether, during any former period of our history, the restraints against the Catholics were conducive to the public good? 2. Whether, at the present period, these restraints redeem their partial evil by a greater sum of public benefit? 3. Whether, under the present new and awful position of affairs, a concession to the Catholics would be a measure peculiarly beneficial?

In order to assist us in the solution of these questions, it is remarked that, however just and necessary the existence of test-laws might have been during the reign of Catholic persecution, while a Catholic prince pretended to the crown, and while a Catholic league and the political power of the Pope existed, yet, as none of these facts are now to be enumerated among our dangers, the ground of alarm from the Catholic religion is diminished, and in course the reasons which once were urged in support of these laws do not now prevail. 'Every circumstance (observes this writer,) has passed away, which formerly justified the exclusion of the Catholics from situations of trust and power.' Fairly and successfully does he encounter the apprehensions of the advocates for exclusion, by shewing the happy effects which must result from admitting Catholics into the legislature. This, he thinks, would be the most effectual way to expand their views, and to regenerate them. Give them the full privileges of subjects, and Napoleon would cease to have a partisan in Ireland.

'The changes produced in the minds of the Catholics who should obtain seats in Parliament, instead of endangering the establishment, would have a tendency directly the reverse. Remove from the Catholics the pressure of unnecessary restraints, and their understandings will expand, and the prejudices of their education wear away; the tide of public sentiment will circulate through their breasts, they will cease to be a diseased excrescence impeding the motions of the body politic.'

This

This is sound reason, which all who are conversant with the operation of knowledge on the mind will understand. In truth, through this pamphlet, the writer's views of the matter in debate are eminently luminous. When he arrives at the last branch of his inquiry, he demonstrates that religious disabilities are not only unnecessary but injurious; that they paralyze the physical strength of the empire; and that they ought, on the principle of self-preservation, to be abrogated.

We are directed to contrast our conduct with that of the enemy, who is tying together the bundle of twigs, while we are producing weakness by keeping them uncombined:

With a policy commensurate to his ambition, every religious disability, every invidious distinction is abolished; he wields unchecked the immense population of his empire, and hurks it against the tottering thrones of Europe. While this awful scene is acting, England, infatuated England! clings to the maxims of ages that are past; splits herself into religious parties, and severs the sinews of her strength. Ye bigoted advocates of an obsolete policy! ye injurious eulogists of the Third William!—if that great Monarch, who curbed the insolence of Lewis XIV. and preserved the liberties of Europe, should arise from the tomb and re-assume the sceptre of these realms, what counsels would he sanction? With an attentive eye he would mark “the signs of the times,” he would change his measures as the circumstances of the world underwent a change, and he would be ready to acknowledge that what was wise in the seventeenth century, might, in the nineteenth, be the highest folly.

In the energetic pleadings for the Catholics of Ireland, which this pamphlet contains, the spirit of disaffection is not fomented: but they are exhorted to be tranquil, to rely on the justice of their cause, and to look forwards, as they well may, with a dignified serenity, to ultimate success.

Art. 28. Bank of England. A Letter to the Proprietors of Bank Stock, in consequence of the Result of a general Meeting held at the Bank pursuant to Notice, 21st January 1806, on Special Affairs. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway.

Alarming apprehensions are entertained by this writer, both for the Bank and for every chartered body, in consequence of the acquiescence of the governor and company in the requisition from ministers, of a loan of three millions, without interest, to the end of the war. He ventures to predict that it will prove the death blow to the security and liberty of British subjects, if the property of every individual company is to be at the command of the minister whenever he chooses to call for it: the Directors are accused of not adhering to the spirit of their oaths; they are asked what right they have to accumulate a surplus without dividing it among the proprietors; and they are reminded that it would not have been in the power of government to have taken it, had it been divided. This statement, as far as it goes, may be correct: but, since the coquetry which has subsisted between the Government and the Bank, it may be wise not to inquire too deeply. Both parties thoroughly understand each other;

other ; and perhaps the old lady of Thread-needle street is perfectly aware that she shall be no loser, by her apparent generosity to her gallant, who is well intitled to the loan which he solicits for past favors. Under existing circumstances, it may be for the benefit of all concerned that they should keep on good terms.

E D U C A T I O N .

Art. 29. *A General Pronouncing Dictionary*, shewing at one View the Orthography, Explanation, Accentuation, and Pronunciation of all the purest and most approved Terms in the English Language, according to the most eminent Lexicographers and Orators. By William Enfield, M A. Author of *Elements of Natural Philosophy*, &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 319. 3s. 6d. boards. Crosby and Co. 1807.

To express by letters the nice distinction between sounds is no easy task, and therefore no two persons who have attempted it have agreed in every particular. This, however, is not the only difficulty ; others arise from the different manner in which the same words are pronounced by persons of eminence and distinction ; and others, also, from the caprice of fashion : add to which, that the same words are pronounced in some respects variously by the same speaker, at different times, according as the subject is grave and solemn or sprightly and gay. On account of these impediments, works of this nature can give only occasional assistance ; and their chief utility arises from consultation when a person hears words pronounced contrary to his accustomed manner, or from the use of them which may be made by foreigners.

In examining the work before us, we find that the author has taken no small pains in the compilation of it. His scheme of the vowels makes them comprehend 22 sounds, and that of the consonants represents their powers to be likewise numerous. We were for the most part pleased with his mode of pronunciation : but we remarked that, were the soft sound of *g* represented by *j*, and not by *ch*, it would be more intelligible, at least to English persons. We also think that, were an appendix inserted, containing the pronunciation of scriptural and other proper names, it would be a valuable addition. The paper is good, and the typography is neat.

Art. 30. *Thoughts on the Subject of Education at School* : addressed to his Friends. By John Bullar. 8vo. 1s. Williams and Smith.

We find by this pamphlet that Mr. Bullar is a schoolmaster at (or near) Southampton ; and the branches of learning in which he proposes to instruct his pupils are here pointed out : but he chiefly enlarges on the religious education which he designs to give them ; and he informs parents that he cannot allow any of his scholars to be absent from him on the Lord's day, but that, though he has no disesteem of the venerable, pathetic, and devotional liturgy of the established church, he shall insist on their attending him to his own place of religious worship. This notification is ingenuous, and the tract is sensibly written : but Mr. B. must expect that, as

a recommendation of his seminary, its influence must be confined within those bounds which he has himself in fact prescribed to it by his restrictions in religious matters.

Art. 31. *Charles et Charlotte, ou Premiere Education de l'Enfance.* 12mo. 2s. Boosey. 1807.

By the aid of dialogues, fables, and short tales, it is here intended to teach young persons the first principles of knowledge, and just notions of things; and the work is adapted for the use of children who are beginning to read the French language.

Art. 32. *L'Ile des Enfans: Histoire Véritable: par Madame de Genlis.* 12mo. 2s. Boosey. 1807.

This tale was suggested by the story of Robinson Crusoe, and is designed to instruct young persons in the various expedients which would be useful to them if they were constrained to live by themselves. It is well calculated for this purpose, and the interest excited in the perusal will allure young people to improvement in their French studies.

Art. 33. *A new and easy Introduction to the Hebrew Language, upon the plan of Grammar in general.* Designed to encourage and promote the Study of that Language, by facilitating the Acquirement of its Principles upon a Plan which in no Work of the Kind has been hitherto adopted. By the Rev. James Williams Newton, M. A. Minor Canon of the Cathedral Church of Norwich. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

An attempt is made in this publication to teach the Hebrew by the same method which is pursued in the case of other languages. Of the propriety of substituting it for that which the generality of grammars contains, the learned may have different opinions: but we think that the plan here adopted may be very beneficial in teaching those who may begin the study of the language at an early age, and is therefore very appropriate for schools; though perhaps for students who commence at a more advanced period of life, the usual mode may be preferable.

As the vowel points are not here used, in the rules given for pronunciation, the author directs that, when a word or syllable consists of consonants only, the vowel to be added shall be that which is used to express the word represented by the elementary character in the Alphabet; as the vowel succeeding a daleth should be an *a*; succeeding a beth, an *e*; succeeding a gimel, an *i*, &c. Since it is allowed, however, that the inserted sounds are of no real consequence, that method which creates the least perplexity naturally suggests itself as the most appropriate; and in consequence, that simple uniform sound which is commonly used, and is equivalent to a Greek *Epsilon*, ought not to be unnecessarily rejected. The other rules respecting pronunciation lead to unnecessary difficulties, and are therefore liable to the same objection as the preceding.—Respecting the Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections, the student is referred to Lexicons for the requisite information: but the work would certainly have been more complete had they been introduced in their proper place.

Although

Although it has appeared to us necessary to make the foregoing remarks, the present work has considerable merit; and we hope that it may be serviceable in attaining a language, which, to clergymen in particular, is of great importance.

Art. 34. *The Manual of Youth*, containing, I. Sixty Fables, French and English, ornamented with one hundred and twenty Cuts, representing the Subjects of the Fables in the French Part, and furnishing, in the English Part a Series of elementary Lessons in the several Styles of Drawing: II. Remarks on Rhetoric, with various Examples on the different Styles, Figures, and Tropes. III. A Large Collection of Extracts in Prose and Verse, selected from the most approved Authors, English and French. By J. Ouisseau, A.M. 12mo. pp. 408. 8s. Boards. Symonds. 1807.

After having transcribed this copious title, a more particular description of the work is unnecessary. We have been pleased with the novel idea of making the embellishments a mode of teaching drawing; the subjects, on this account, are represented larger than would otherwise have been necessary; and they constitute a good series. The Fables are each literally translated from French into English, and will prove useful to those who study either language. The Remarks on Rhetoric contain an explanation of the various figures, with examples at large, taken from English authors: the young student will find these explanations concise and comprehensive, and will be gratified by the elegance of the illustrations. The extracts, which the third part contains, are judiciously selected from the best authors in both languages, and consist of short specimens of their different styles.

POETRY and the DRAMA.

Art. 35. *Pros and Cons, for Cupid and Hymen*: in a Series of metrical satiric Dialogues. Exhibiting the Horrors and Delights of being over Head and Ears in Love; with the supreme Felicity and Wretchedness of Matrimony. To which are added other Pieces. By Jenkin Jones, Author of *Hobby Horses*, and the *Philanthropist*; and Editor of *Love and Satire*. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Allen. 1807.

We have been not a little amused with some parts of these poems, which in general possess an easy flow of versification, attended however by a want of correctness which might and certainly ought to have been avoided. Our greatest objection is to their length, and to the numerous repetitions which they contain. Owing to these redundancies, that which at first appears *funny* becomes tiresome and insipid; had the author written only half as much, he would have pleased us twice as well.

Art. 36. *Musical Dramas*, with select Poems and Ballads. By John Rannie. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Allen.

If these dramas call forth no severity of censure, neither do they excite in our minds any glow of approbation: a sentence, of itself sufficiently unfavorable to works which depend solely on public applause.

Art.

Art. 37. *Every Day Characters*, a Satirical Comedy. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Rivingtons.

We have here a very dull attempt at wit, in which the keen edge of satire is hacked like a hand-saw, till it has lost all its power of cutting.

Art. 38. *The Catiff of Corsica*, or the universal Banditto. An historical Drama, in five Acts: exhibiting the Characters, moral and political, of the principal Personages throughout the French Revolution. With their Portraits, reduced from the original Oil Paintings in the Museum at Paris. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Budd.

A most violent attack on Bonaparte: but, hard indeed would be our fate, if such were our best weapons of offence and defence!

Art. 39. *Della Ragion Poetica, tra' Greci Latini ed Italiani*, di Vincenzo Gravina. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Becket.

This is another of those handsome little volumes, which have been so carefully edited by Mr. Mathias, and to which every Italian scholar will gladly assign a niche in his library. We need scarcely remark that the refined criticism, and the elegant erudition, which characterize Gravina's Treatise on Poetry, sufficiently intitle it to the distinction which it has obtained from the learned editor. The dedicatory *Canzone* flows with all the grace of the Tuscan muse: but we are tempted to wish for a more ample sketch of the life and character of the author, than can be drawn from the short and meagre notices of Tiraboschi.

Art. 40. *Opere Scelte dell' Abate Metastasio. Rivedute da Leonardo Nardini, ad Uso degli Studiosi della Lingua Italiana. Seconda Edizione.* 12mo. 2 vols. 10s. Boards. Dulau and Co.

With the first edition of this selection, the readers of Italian poetry have been for some years familiarly acquainted; and a second is now presented to them, in which we believe no material difference occurs. The pieces, which are culled with judgment, and printed with correctness, form an excellent and agreeable introduction to the study of Italian poetry. Vol. I. contains *Adriano*, *Artaserse*, *La Clemenza di Tito*, *Demetrio*, *Demofonte*, *Olympiade*, *La Libertà a Nice*, *Palinodia della Libertà a Nice*, and *La Partenza*; Vol. II. *Attilio Regolo*, *Le Ginesi*, *Ciro Riconosciuto*, *Isacco*, *Isida Disabitata*, *Temistocle*, and *Zenobia*; besides fifteen of the *Cantate*, two of the *Canzonette*, the hymn to Venus, and two *Madrigals*. Each volume consists of 284 pages, and is executed on a neat and distinct type.

Art. 41. *The Battle of Trafalgar*, a Poem. To which is added a Selection of fugitive Pieces, chiefly written at Sea, by Laurence Halloran, D.D., late Chaplain of the Britannia, and Secretary to Rear-Admiral the Earl of Northesk, K. B. 8vo. pp. 130. 10s. 6d. Boards. White, &c.

Dr. Halloran's muse breathes a spirit of animation not unworthy of the great achievement which he has undertaken to celebrate; and the plan of the narration is well arranged, being sufficiently minute to interest, without dwelling too long on scenes which are calculated to excite horror. The author has introduced the Genius of the Rock of

of Gibraltar announcing, with vindictive joy, to the British fleet the impending loss of their commander; and Nelson himself appears to Captain Hardy, in the night succeeding the action. This machinery reminds us of a Spanish poem intitled *the Shade of Nelson*, which we noticed in our Appendix to Vol. 50. N.S.—Dr. H.'s Spirit is, however, a spirit of consolation; whereas the Spaniard has introduced Nelson as despairing of the fortunes of his country, and holding a language somewhat resembling the angry bodings of Dr. Halloran's enthralled Genius of the Rock. The description of the explosion of a captured ship may serve as a specimen of the poet's style:

' Sudden her frame a dire explosion tore,
And shook Heaven's concave with th' enormous roar,
The trembling waves recede beneath her keel,
And Ocean's depths the dread concussion feel;
While, borne impetuous thro' the troubled air,
Like threat'ning meteors, blazing fragments glare;
Then a red column, tow'ring to the skies,
In dreadful grandeur slowly seem'd to rise;
While frequent coruscations from its side,
Like lightning's flashes, spread their terrors wide,
Till in one fiery shower it fell, combin'd,
And to a pitchy cloud the air resigned !'

We are sorry that we cannot speak in terms equally favourable of Dr. H.'s lighter compositions, but his manner is seldom free from a stiffness which paralyzes his attempts at playfulness and humor.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We cannot possibly find time to answer all such letters as that of *Nemesis*, and the remoteness of the references in this case renders a reply the less necessary. The *eulogium*, with which the writer finds fault, was a quotation, as due attention ought to have apprized him; and with its propriety we had no concern.

Mr. T., of Skinner-street, has some reason for complaining of the trial of his patience: but circumstances have arisen which have made it unavoidable on our part. He may be assured, however, that, though judgment is respited, sentence will be ultimately pronounced.

It is with regret that we decline to fulfil the requests of *Juvenis*: but we have always found it necessary to *protest* such *drafts* on our time and attention. We cannot, like the conjurer in the Old Bailey, *answer all questions by sea and land*.

The production of W. A. K.'s ingenuity does not come within the sphere of our notice.

In the APPENDIX to the last vol. of the M. R., which was published with the No. for January, p. 465. l. 11. fr. bott. for 'become, r. *became*; and p. 511. l. 27. for 'have', r. *dare*.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MARCH, 1808.

ART. I. Captain Burney's *Chronological History of the Voyages and Discoveries in the South Sea*, Vol. II.

[*Art. concluded from p. 35.*]

EXCEPTING our own countrymen, no competitors had disturbed the Spaniards in the South Sea until the death of Philip II. At that time, the Hollanders, whose spirit and industry had created a powerful marine and a flourishing commerce, notwithstanding the exhausting war which they sustained at home, and who had already attacked Spain in India by fleets which sailed round the Cape of Good Hope, sent out five ships on the same destination by a western route. Mismanagement, however, delayed them in the Strait of Magalhães; and when at last they reached the South Sea, the squadron was separated, and its design entirely frustrated. One of the scattered vessels steered for Japan, for the purpose of trade; where the pilot, William Adams, was forcibly detained in the service of the emperor. De Cordes, who commanded this unfortunate expedition, and who was killed by the natives of the Island Santa Maria, seems to have been a man of little ability, and of a peculiar turn of mind: before he left the Strait of Magalhães, he instituted an order of chivalry, called "The Lion unchained;" and during a heavy fall of snow, in the midst of a southern winter, he ordered all his men on shore to attend a Thanksgiving Sermon.

A commander of very different character conducted the next voyage, undertaken (like the other) at the expence of a company of Dutch Merchants. Olivier Van Noort, with four vessels, containing 248 persons, sailed from Helyoetsluis a few months after De Cordes, viz. in August 1598: but he did not arrive on the coast of Brazil till the succeeding February, and then judged it too late in the southern season to proceed to the Strait. He therefore sought, but in vain, for the island of St. Helena, where he desired to winter; and

after having traversed the Atlantic for some time, he found himself again unexpectedly on the coast of Brazil. Here all was under Spanish influence, and consequently hostile; and the ships, in July, proceeded towards the Strait. Having staid about five weeks in Port Desire, and made many unsuccessful efforts to enter the Strait, they at last accomplished that object in November, 1599; the whole of their voyage having been a proof of the imperfect state of navigation at the end of the sixteenth century.

The harsh and unfeeling character of Van Noort is evident from his severe discipline throughout the voyage; and especially from his Council having condemned the officer next to him in command, to be left on shore in the Strait, there to perish, on account of disobedience: but the cool indifference, with which the unprovoked massacre of a small tribe of natives in the Strait is related, seems to indicate that the feelings of his journalist and of his crew were as impregnable as his own. The cruelties which the Dutch and Spaniards had mutually exercised, in their naval depredations, had perhaps hardened their minds beyond any former example among Europeans; at least we cannot but endeavour to discover some such palliation of the deed which is here narrated by Captain B. After he has mentioned that some shots were causelessly fired at a few natives, who appeared on the south shore of the Strait, he observes:

‘The reader has just been made acquainted with a strange instance of wanton barbarity; but the transaction which is next to be related must be ranked among the most flagrant and deplorable acts of senseless cruelty, which human nature has at any time been found capable of perpetrating.

‘On the smallest of the two *Penguin Islands* (which is the Northernmost) some natives were seen, and two boats were sent to them from the ships. As the boats drew near, about forty natives, who were collected on a high cliff, made signs to the Hollanders not to advance, and threw to them some penguins from the cliff, imagining that the purpose of their coming was to get a supply of those birds. Finding, however, that the strangers would not be so deterred, and that they continued to approach, they shot arrows at them. The Hollanders fired their musquets, and the natives, being driven from the cliff, fled for refuge to a cavern in the side of a hill, where it seems they had before placed their women and children. The Hollanders, having landed, followed the natives, and determined to enter their place of retreat. The steepness of the ground rendered the cavern difficult of access, and the entrance was defended by the natives with bows and arrows; but it did not afford protection against the fire arms of the assailants, who used them with the most unrelenting ferocity, and without remorse persisted in their purpose; receiving no other hurt than ~~thre~~ or four of their number being wounded

wounded with arrows. The natives, notwithstanding the inferiority of their arms and the dreadful havoc made among them, continued to fight in defence of their women and children with desperate and undiminished courage; and not before the last man of them was killed, did the Hollanders obtain entrance. Within the cavern they found a number of miserable women and children lying one upon the other, the mothers having formed barricades of their own bodies to protect their children from the musquetry; and many, both of the women and children, were killed or wounded.

‘This deed, which no epithet can adequately characterise, seems to have been the effect of a blind undistinguishing thirst of revenge for the death of the three men killed by the natives at *Port Desire*. In the original account, the whole transaction is calmly related without any remark or a single term expressive of compunction or pity.

‘The tribe thus exterminated (for so in effect it was, the part remaining being so utterly defenceless and unprotected) were people nearly of the same stature as the common people in *Holland*, and the men were remarked to be broad and high chested. From among the children, four boys and two girls were taken on board the ships and kept. One of the boys afterwards learnt to speak the Dutch language; and from him it was understood, that the name of the tribe from whence he sprung was *Enoo*, and of the country which they inhabited, *Cassi*: the Island on which the Hollanders found them he said was named *Talke*, which signified, in the language of his country, an Ostrich: the other Island he called *Castemne*; an animal supposed to be the Guanaco, he called *Carsoni*; a Penguin, *Cam-pogre*; and some other bird, *Oripogre*. The skins of these birds they dressed as neatly as an European furrier could have done. From the same boy they learnt that the people of his country dwelt in caverns dug in the earth; and that the natives lived in tribes. He named four tribes besides his own; i. e. the *Kemanites*, the place of whose habitations was named *Karay*; the *Kemichas*, inhabitants of *Karamay*; the *Karaike* tribe, inhabiting a place named *Morine*; the people of these three tribes were of the same stature as those of the *Enoo* tribe; but a race living farther within the country, who were named *Tiremenen*, and their territory *Coin*, were ‘great people like giants, being from 10 to 11 feet high; and they came to make war against the other tribes, whom they reproached for being eaters of Ostriches.’ This slender portion of unimportant information was the only benefit the Hollanders derived from the extermination of the unfortunate tribe of *Enoo*.’

After a tedious navigation of a year and a half, Van Noort entered the South Sea, appointing the island Santa Maria for a common rendezvous in case of separation. He procured provisions at the island Mocha; and coming to Santa Maria, he found there a Spanish coaster, which he captured after a long chase to the northward. The southerly winds, almost incessant on the coast of Chili, precluded him from returning to Santa Maria to seek one of his consorts, from whom he was therefore finally separated. He then proceeded

up the coast, taking a few insignificant prizes, till at the equator it was judged dangerous 'again to approach the land of America;' and the ships, which were now reduced to two, the *Mauritius*, (in which was Van Noort,) and the *Eendracht* yacht, steered for Cocos Island. In their attempt, however, to find this island, they failed, as formerly in their search for St. Helena, and resolved to stand on for the Philippines. Here commenced another scene of mischievous warfare at sea, and occasionally on the islands, so that the Government at Manila had sufficient notice of the approach of an enemy. Two ships were consequently fitted out to attack the Hollanders; and as they were commanded by De Morga, the historian of the Philippines, a narrative of the remarkable sea-fight which ensued has been preserved by both parties:

'As the two Holland ships were lying at anchor under shelter of the land just to the North of the entrance of *Manila Bay*, the wind being fresh from the ENE, two sail were seen in the passage, standing out of the Bay. Van Noort sent a boat, with a supply of men, to the *Eendracht*, with orders for her to get under sail, to speak the strange vessels; but it soon became apparent that they were ships of force, and that it was their design to speak the Hollanders; the boat therefore returned to the Admiral.

'In Olivier Van Noort's ship, the *Mauritius*, there were at this time 55 persons, and in the *Eendracht* only 25. It was judged necessary to receive the enemy under sail, and as there was not time for the *Mauritius* to take up her anchor, the cable was cut. The Spanish ships, being fitted for the occasion, and fresh out of port, were fully manned. The *Penible Voyage* supposes they had between 400 and 500 men in each ship. Half that number would no doubt be a more reasonable estimate. They steered for the Hollanders, who fired upon them in their approach, which the Spaniards could not return on account of the direction in which they were steering: the strength of the wind likewise, which was on their starboard side, obliged them to keep their lee ports shut. The Spanish Admiral, De Morga, took the resolution to run right on board the Dutch Admiral, which seems to have been executed with some roughness. The Spaniards entered Van Noort's ship, and the Dutch being overpowered by numbers retreated from the open deck, and from their close quarters harassed the enemy. The Spaniards having possession of the deck, dismasted the main and mizen masts of sails and rigging, and took down the flag of Holland (white, blue, and orange, with the arms of Count Maurice). The commander of the *Eendracht*, when he saw his Admiral's colours struck, believing that the victory was decided in favour of the Spaniards, set all his sails, and endeavoured to escape, and was pursued by the Spanish Almirante.

'In the Dutch Admiral's ship, however, the Spaniards did not succeed in making their enemy submit, though they remained masters of the open deck six hours. At the end of that time, Van Noort

Noort told his people they must come out and fight the Spaniards, or he would set fire to the magazine and blow up the ship. Antonio de Morga relates, that at this time the after-part of the Dutch Admiral's ship took fire, which rendered it necessary for him to withdraw his men, and to separate the two ships, which he did, taking with him the enemy's flag. After Van Noort's ship was cleared of the enemy, the engagement was renewed with cannon, but was not of much longer continuance; for De Morga's ship 'being weakly built,' became open in the fore part, and took water in so fast, that in a short time she went down. The Dutch account here first mentions that their ship had taken fire, which, having time now to attend to, they succeeded in extinguishing, 'our Lord God,' says Van Noort's journal, 'most mercifully saving us from these imminent perils of the enemy and fire.' The greater part of the crew of the Spanish Admiral were saved by country boats, which they had in attendance, and by a boat which they had taken from the Dutch Admiral. Some of the Spaniards swam to Van Noort's ship, begging for mercy and assistance; but they did not obtain either. Those who came within reach of the Hollanders were knocked on the head, or killed with pikes, and guns were fired at others whilst swimming in the water. This inhuman proceeding is not complained of in the Spanish account; and in fact, the Spaniards had but little claim upon the compassion of the Hollanders. The circumstance just related is not mentioned by De Morga; but in the Dutch journal, pains have been taken that it should not escape notice, the reputation of destroying Spaniards being much more prized by the Dutch Commander, than the praise of showing them lenity.

'Antonio de Morga, and those of his people who remained, went for shelter that night to a small uninhabited Island named *Fortuna*, about six leagues SSW. from the entrance of the *Bay of Manila*. De Morga states the loss of people in the *Capitana* to be fifty, including the drowned with those killed in battle. The event of his ship sinking, it is probable, was as much owing to the shock received in boarding as to damage suffered from shot in the action. In Olivier Van Noort's ship five men were killed outright, and 26 wounded. Their associate, the *Eendracht*, did not escape so cheaply, but was captured early in the day by the Spanish *Almiranta*. When the ship of the Spanish Admiral sunk, the *Almiranta*, with her prize, were about two leagues distant from Van Noort; but he did not think his ship in a condition to attempt her rescue; neither did the Spanish *Almiranta* make any endeavour to attack Van Noort, for which De Morga has severely censured him in his history.

'As soon as Van Noort could get any sails in order, he directed his course for the *Island Borneo*. The *Eendracht* was taken to *Manila*, where, by the Governor's order, Captain Lambert Bieerman and his ship's company were all executed as pirates and rebels; it being as much a matter of course as if it had been settled by mutual compact, that the two nations should show no mercy to each other.'

Van Noort, having purchased necessities at Borneo, now steered homewards, and arrived at Rotterdam nearly three years after his departure; his ship being the first which had circumnavigated the globe.

'The voyage of Olivier Van Noort contributed little to Geography; and impartially considered, neither this, nor the Voyage of the Five Ships of Rotterdam which preceded it, can give an advantageous opinion of the maritime knowledge and management of the Hollanders at that time. Both the expeditions are full of interesting events, but that of Olivier Van Noort is stained with many instances of shocking barbarity. Nevertheless it added to the reputation of his countrymen for enterprize both warlike and commercial, and therefore met with great favour from them.'

The next expedition here narrated is that of Vizcaino, who in 16c2 was dispatched from Acapulco to examine the western coast of California, with a view to some establishment there for the convenience of the Philippine Trade. This voyage was apparently undertaken purely for discovery, which was to commence from Cape San Lucas: but religion seems to have been a real or pretended motive; and consequently unfavourable winds at the outset are assigned to the following origin:

'It is well known,' says Torquemada, 'that these storms were raised by the enemy of the human kind, to prevent this armada from proceeding farther to discover new lands, that the natives might not be converted to our Catholic faith; but so great a zeal prevailed through the whole armada, that there was not in it a single man who would not have chosen to perish rather than to desist from the enterprise.'

By patience, however, this evil influence seems to have been subdued; and the squadron, consisting of four vessels, proceeded slowly up the coast. In this progress, the natives were not treated with unnecessary severity, and the voyagers seem to have been awake to observation.—An anecdote of the sociable nature of the Pelican proves that this bird is not unworthy of the patronage of emblematic Heraldry; though, like many other birds, she feeds her young in reality from the proper receptacle, and not with her own blood. At the island of Asceucion, it is related that the natives tie up a Pelican for the sake of procuring fish, which is furnished to the captive by other pelicans, 'in greater abundance than he can consume.'

Vizcaino appears to have extended his examination to about 40° N. Lat. and in his return seems to have had good opportunity for making accurate observations on the coast, which is delineated with great exactness in a chart inserted by
Captain

Captain B.; being a copy of that of Vizcaino, which was not given to the world till 1802, and then in illustration of a late Spanish voyage. On this occasion, Vizcaino's Journal escaped from the *Archivo General de Indias*, a repository at Seville, where all such relations and charts are hidden till some very extraordinary motive draws them forth. This chart is a valuable addition to geography; and Captain B. has not failed to compare it with others, which have been formed with more general science, but with less particular knowledge of this coast.—Vizcaino intended to have established a settlement; but died while making preparation; and the design was not pursued by the Spanish government.

In describing the track between the Philippines and New Spain, Antonio de Morga (the adversary of Van Noort) mentions two islands as seldom seen, called *Rica de Oro*, rich in gold, and *Rica de Plata*, rich in silver. These tempting appellations have provoked much fruitless search and inquiry: but at length Captain Burney, having traced the origin of the story to the Japanese, and examined the subsequent investigations of the Spaniards (as preserved in a scarce manuscript), has consigned these islands to the class of fabulous. Two miserable rocks, not far from their reputed position, maintain the name and memory of *Rica de Oro* and *Rica de Plata* in modern charts.

The voyage of Quiros, in 1606, is one of those which contributed considerably to the knowledge of lands in the South Sea, and has been celebrated accordingly. He discovered the since famous Otaheite, calling it *Sagittaria*; and De Torres, his second in command, persevering in the object of the voyage after he had parted from Quiros, actually saw the real *Terra Australis*, or Great Southern Continent, sometimes improperly called *New Holland*.

Quiros's discoveries have heretofore rested on narratives so imperfect, that it was scarcely known whether one or two voyages were made by him after the year 1600. Fortunately, however, the manuscript Journal of De Torres, second in command, but, first in the merit of discovery, has been preserved, and communicated to Captain Burney by Mr. Dalrymple. With this aid, and supported by his own personal knowledge of the place, Captain B. has clearly settled from the comparison of various considerations, that *Sagittaria* is really the modern Otaheite; and, from the position of that and other ascertained points, he has been enabled to supply the imperfection of the narrative, and to give a consistent view of the discoveries made in this voyage, the track of which is accordingly delineated in the map facing the title page of the present

present volume. The adventures of Quiros and De Torres at the several islands on which they landed are very interesting; and the information imparted by a chieftain of Taumato was not only intelligible at the time, but its authenticity has even been confirmed by some of the discoveries of Captain Cook. — The mind of Quiros seems to have been rather amiable than energetic :

‘ The character of Quiros as a navigator and a discoverer is unquestionable. In other respects, his abilities were, if not below mediocrity, by no means equal to the task of forming settlements in newly-conquered countries. Though a passionate admirer of the natives of the *South Sea Islands*, and acquainted with their manners, his conduct towards them, independent of its injustice, has all the character of levity and inexperience. His want of firmness likewise disqualified him from exercising or preserving the authority of a Commander ; and to this weakness it may be attributed that his success in discovery, instead of leading to his advancement, proved to him a constant source of disappointment.’

We can scarcely agree with Captain B. as to the injustice here attributed to Quiros. Contests may and frequently do happen between parties who may be both in the right, especially when they are ignorant of each other's meaning ; and if the previous question, whether it be fit and proper to institute voyages of discovery, shall be determined in the affirmative, we cannot think that a civilized navigator has not a full right to pursue his object by landing where he pleases, for the purposes of procuring provision or of general investigation, and to defend himself promptly against any attack. However detestable unnecessary severity must always be, perhaps too much forbearance has been exercised in late voyages ; and the death of Captain Cook, and of the companions of Pérouse at Navigator's Islands, may be ascribed to too great lenity of conduct towards uncivilized tribes : who in general may be justly charged with an inordinate desire of pillage, and frequently of massacre. We are sensible that we are venturous in dissenting from Captain B. on this question, on which it is in his power to produce his own experience against the necessity of severity, which he may call injustice, or of punishment, which he may term revenge : but we are certain that the difference between our opinion and his lies within narrow limits ; and we can readily suppose that, in a book likely to be at hand in all future voyages of discovery, he deemed it right to inculcate a leaning to the merciful extreme.

A remark of Captain Cook recorded in this voyage (p. 300) must not be omitted ; “ A *Port* is a vague term, like many others

others in Geography." All the definitions of Geography should certainly be made more exact than they are at present, in order that the science might proceed with aid similar to that which is afforded by the Nomenclature of Chemistry and of Botany: but it is not wonderful that such elementary assistance should here be wanting; since the studious geographer has usually been a different person from the practical navigator, who must furnish the materials of the science, which suffers from this inevitable want of communication. An instance of this fact appears in the sequel of the voyage before us:

• When M. de Bougainville, in 1768, made the South coast of *New Guinea*, the want of information concerning the discoveries of Torres made him beat up against the wind, with a reduced stock of provisions, to get round the East end of the land, which when he had weathered it, he named *Cape Deliverance*.

• This forms a strong case, among the numerous ones which have occurred of the same nature, for showing the utility of a general and public repository wherein to lodge and preserve all new acquisitions in maritime geography; and points out as a reasonable and necessary regulation, that the navigation laws of every maritime country should prescribe to seamen the duty of communicating all new information that could contribute to the improvement of Navigation, and especially the discovery of new lands, rocks, banks, or shoals.

• Within the last twenty years, many discoveries have been made of Islands, concerning which no information has been transmitted by the discoverers to any department of the government of their country. Much knowledge of this kind has been obtained which has never arrived at any kind of public notice, and will be lost for the want of regular and appointed channels of communication.

Captain B.'s proposition affords an excellent hint for the future: for the past, we can only have recourse to such works as that now before us, but which, unfortunately for navigation, has not a parallel in accuracy and historical research.

The voyages which occupy the remainder of this volume are mostly Dutch; that of Joris Spilbergen in 1614, and of Le Maire and Schouten immediately afterward. Spilbergen's expedition is little remarkable for discovery; though it contributed somewhat to geography by an improved chart of the Strait of Magalhães, by which western route Spilbergen carried aid to his countrymen, then contending with the Portuguese in the Moluccas.—In this voyage is mentioned and delineated the *Balsa* (or Raft) of the South Sea; and Captain B. has inserted a representation of this most remarkable effort of uncivilized navigation; as also, by way of comparison, the improved *Balsa* described by Don Ant. De Ulloa.

Ulloa. These Balzas, which are rafts of the same construction as Catamarans, are so contrived as to keep the sea, to carry sail very near the wind, and to steer without a helm; all which is effected by means of *Guares*, or sliding planks, skilfully applied by thrusting them down between the timbers of which the raft is composed.—Although Ulloa's book is very accessible, this principle has in our time been re-produced in England as a new invention, but with a most unfortunate misapplication to shipping instead of rafts: an attempt which has failed, and which perhaps it is not worth while to preserve from oblivion, except as a matter of history, and as a warning to any future imitator.

The voyage of Le Maire and Schouten was undertaken in consequence of an association of intelligent merchants, who, from frequent consultation together, became persuaded of the existence of a passage to the south of the Strait of Magalhanes; and who therefore asked and obtained from the States of Holland, an exclusive privilege of making four voyages to any places newly discovered by them:

'The views of the new Company in this arduous undertaking, may be said to have been wholly commercial. They fitted out two ships, whose force was not greater than was required for their security among the uncivilised inhabitants of the countries they expected to fall in with. The projected voyage was necessarily to be one of discovery, because they were restricted from going to India by the known routes.'

This partnership of merchants was called *Compagnie Australe*, or Southern Company. The vessels fitted out for the voyage were the *Eendracht* of 360 tons and 65 men, and the *Horne* (a galliot) of 110 tons and 22 men. Jacob le Maire was the president or principal merchant, and Willem Schouten was the patron or master mariner; and the reputation of this voyage has caused a contest between them and their friends, each contending for superiority of renown. Hence distinct narratives have been published; in substance however the same, and in the opinion of Captain B. all taken from Schouten's *Sea Journal*. They sailed from the Texel in June 1615; and in October they crossed the Equinoctial Line, and the object of the voyage was declared to the crews. They passed about a month in Port Desse, where the *Horne* galliot was burnt by accident.—The ship's company seems to have been selected for the voyage with more discrimination than is usual. We find among them fiddlers and dancers to amuse the native Islanders of the South Sea, and trumpeters for occasions of imposing ceremony; and the sketches as well as charts preserved in the *Journal* prove that a drafts-

man

man was not wanting. Captain B. has inserted several etchings, as full of information as the narrative itself. Port Desire is the subject of one of these drawings, which are thus described :

‘ Most of the drawings of places given by the early Dutch navigators are rude and disproportionate representations : but by their method of combining map and picture, though done at the expence both of perspective and correct measurement, much information and a clear general idea are communicated. The figures introduced are likewise defective in point of neatness and correctness, but are seldom without character.’

The combination of Map and Picture, here mentioned, is much less in use than it deserves : for a confined plan, or for representing buildings, nothing equals it, as those must be sensible who are acquainted with the sketches of several fields of battle, and Netherland towns, inserted in Tindal's Continuation of Rapin ; and even the old Plan of London by Aggas in 1570, in all its rudeness, gives a far more lively idea of the object represented than any modern plan of modern London will convey to posterity fifty years hence.

Le Maire and Schouten left Port Desire 16 January 1616 ; and, boldly passing the latitude of the eastern entrance of the Strait of Magalhães, on the 24 January they discovered the island called in honour of their country Staten-Land, and the strait which separates it from Terra del Fuego. This passage was named from the President, the Strait of Le Maire.—Having passed Cape Horne, so named from the native place of Schouten, they directed their course northward to about the 15th deg. of south latitude ; and then steering westward on that parallel, they discovered successively several islands, at which they procured little supply of water and provisions, the natives being in general unfriendly. In stretching across this extensive ocean, they fell in with a large double canoe, fitted with a triangular sail, and containing 25 persons : in chasing which the Hollanders imprudently used their musquetry, and so terrified the Indians that many of them leaped overboard and perished : but the Dutch seem to have felt due compunction for this catastrophe, and made such atonement to the survivors as was in their power. The author has a striking observation on this affair ;

‘ This unfortunate adventure is the heaviest reproach which can be brought against the Voyage of Le Maire and Schouten, and is the more blameable as it might have been expected that from a sympathetic regard, independent of general considerations of humanity, they would have respected the enterprising navigators of the *South Sea* ; a character to which these Islanders were well entitled, who

who, without compass, or any of the aids from science which enable the navigators of other countries to guide themselves with safety, ventured beyond the sight of land.'

An island which they called Cocos Island, from its coconut trees, was next discovered; and here the Hollanders obtained by barter some provision: but this intercourse was closed by a treacherous attack of the natives, which however was not revenged.—Of this island an etching is given.—A few days afterward, they discovered another island, which they named Horne Island; and here they found a convenient watering place, and remained ten days. A friendly communication was kept up with the natives, whose peculiar and ceremonious manners form a remarkable trait of uncivilized life, and are described, as are also the adventures of the voyagers at this place, in a very lively strain of narrative. This island was seen by Captain Wilson in 1801.

The Hollanders now resolved to sail to the north of New Guinea, being ignorant of the southern passage discovered by De Torres. Much intercourse took place with the natives of the country and of the neighbouring islands, and Schouten's chart of that coast is a valuable piece of geography.—In September, they had the satisfaction of meeting a Dutch ship, one of Spilbergen's fleet, and at this time 85 persons remained out of the 87 who had sailed from Holland; a singular instance of good fortune, combined with prudent conduct. At Java the voyage terminated, to the eternal disgrace of the Dutch East India Company, who confiscated and seized the *Eendracht*; sending home Le Maire and Schouten, of whom the former died in the passage.

'This (observes the author,) was a most cruel requital for men to meet with from their own countrymen, in return for having, with superior sagacity and spirit, undertaken and accomplished an enterprise so hazardous and so reputable, the lustre of which continues to this day to reflect honour on their country. It might have been expected that the licence which the *Compagnie Australe* had obtained from the States General, and from the Prince of Orange, would have obviated any charge of illegality from being made against the voyage: but the President of *Bantam* and his Council seem to have coloured their unworthy proceedings by professing to disbelieve the account of a new passage into the *South Sea* having been discovered. The Journalist of Admiral Spilbergen's voyage, J. Cornelisz May, who was at this time Master Mariner of the ship *Amsterdam*, mentioning the arrival of Le Maire and Schouten, says, in a spirit of rivalry, from which the most honourable pursuits do not exempt men, "These people had not in so long a voyage discovered any unknown countries, nor any place for new commerce, nor any thing which could be of benefit to the public, although they

they pretended that they had discovered a passage shorter than the usual passage : which is very improbable, inasmuch as it took them fifteen months and three days to make their voyage to *Ternate*, though with a single ship. — These usurpers of the names of passages into the *South Sea*, were much astonished that the commander Spilbergen, with a fleet of large ships, had arrived so long before them at *Ternate*."

* The ships *Amsterdam* and *Zeeland* sailed from *Bantam* for *Holland* on the 15th of December.

† On the 31st of December, Jacob Le Maire died : it is not said of what disease, nor is any previous illness mentioned ; but mortification at the treatment he had experienced, must be supposed to have had a great share in shortening his days. He was aged, at the time of his death, only 31 years. The ill-founded prejudices of J. Cornelisz May were by this time eradicated. After relating the decease of Le Maire, he adds, "for whom our Admiral and all of us were greatly grieved, as he was a man gifted with rare experience in affairs of navigation." Whatever doubt might have been at first entertained concerning the veracity of Le Maire and Schouten's account of their voyage, it was impossible that it should not soon have been removed by associating with them in the same ship. —

‡ It has not been discovered in any relation of the voyage of Le Maire and Schouten, or in any biographical or other account which has been met with in drawing up the narrative here given, that any compensation was made by the Dutch East India Company, either to the *Compagnie Australe* for the seizure of their ship, or to those who performed the voyage in her, for the interruption, loss, and inconvenience, which must have been sustained by them in consequence of the seizure.

At the conclusion of this interesting voyage, Captain B., according to his constant practice, has given a dissertation on the situation of the discoveries of Le Maire and Schouten ; and he has also inserted a vocabulary of words collected in the several islands by Le Maire. For the immediate purposes of future navigators, the use of this latter is apparent ; and navigation itself has been no small gainer by the application of many points of general knowledge ; in which it is one of the greatest desiderata to settle the origin or early pedigree of nations, which can only be effected by etymological deduction. The words in the vocabulary of Le Maire have been clearly traced to a Malay origin, and the Malays themselves by the same means to Arabia ; whence, therefore, all the islands of the *South Sea* have been peopled. The trade-wind, constant from the east, seems to render this conjecture improbable : but let us see how Captain B. obviates the objection :

§ As the general course of the trade-wind is contrary to the navigation from the *East Indies* to the Islands in the *South Sea*, it seems

seems at first sight highly improbable that the supposed migration can have happened; but in truth, this seeming difficulty forms the strongest argument in its favour. The inhabitants of Islands situated in a trade-wind would always be cautious how they ventured to leeward beyond their knowledge, for fear that bad weather or currents might prevent their return. This consideration would have the greater effect in preventing emigration Westward from *America*, as the Islands in the Eastern part of the *Pacific* are few in number, small, and at great intervals of distance. On the contrary, the prospect of being able to return at pleasure is a constant temptation to venture to Windward. It is probable that even their fishing, if at a distance from land, would be always carried on to Windward; and that to this cause is to be attributed their canoes being so admirably adapted for going to Windward. Under these circumstances there can be little difficulty in believing that the Islands so thickly strewn in the Western parts of the *Pacific Ocean*, have served, in a gradual progress of discovery, as stepping-stones for population to travel Eastward from *India*.

‘The population of the *South Sea Islands* would furnish proof, if evidence were wanting, that the Malays have at all times been better navigators than the natives of *New Guinea*. The people of the race last mentioned have been found only among the Islands which are nearly contiguous to *New Guinea*, whilst those of Malay origin have spread themselves to all parts of the South Sea: and in the Eastern and more remote Islands from *India*, no other inhabitants are found than people with long hair, whose language bears decisive marks of a Malay origin.’

In a concluding chapter, we find a notice of the *Terra Australis*, extracted from Thevenot. “*La Terre Australe qui fait maintenant une cinquieme partie du Monde, a esté decouverte a plusieurs fois. Les Chinois en ont eu connoissance il y a long temps, car l’on void que Marco Polo marque deux grandes Isles au Sud Est de Java, ce qu’il avoit appris apparemment des Chinois.*” ‘The Southern Land, which now makes a fifth part of the world, has been discovered at various times. The Chinese had knowledge of it long ago; for we see that Marco Polo marks too great Islands to the SE. of Java, which it is probable that he learnt from the Chinese.’—Thevenot’s *Terre Australe* seems among us to be usually termed New Holland: but it is time that our geographers should distinctly call it by some proper name; whether the *Southern Continent*, or any other.

In considering what portion of deliberate praise ought to be given to Captain B.’s laborious and most useful work, we could not avoid adverting to certain deficiencies in the history of navigation, suggested perhaps by our perusal of the present volume. Except Falconer’s Dictionary, we possess no book of reference on the subject; though the notorious
difficulty

difficulty of conceiving the fashion of the galley of the antients should have taught us how evanescent is the unrecorded knowledge of once familiar things. So great is our want of precise definition even at the present day, that *wherries*, which at Portsmouth and in the Thames are boats sharply built for rowing, about 23 feet long, are at Dublin a species of decked sloops, of 30 or 40 tons burthen. Of *Caravelas*, Captain B. has inserted an explanation, (p. 457,) but we apprehend that his definition is scarcely accurate. Instead of a 'vessel rigged principally with *triangular sails*,' he should have said, 'with a *square sail* (*Cara-vela*) on the foremast.' Antient representations of shipping might be found: such as the Armada-tapestry in the House of Lords, and the seals of our maritime corporate towns; and investigation would no doubt discover other materials.

The form of shipping and of the rigging is among the causes of improvement: the effect also we should be glad to be enabled to appreciate, by a comparative statement of the time usually consumed in some well known voyage, and of the loss of shipping sustained in it in former and in modern times. We would recommend it to Captain B., whose *History of Discovery* indicates so much collateral reading, to extend his investigation to this subject. The voyage to and from the East Indies has been prodigiously shortened within the memory of man*.

We ought not to conclude this article without remarking the liberal allowance of plates in the present volume, which contains eight charts and six other cuts and etchings. — We have not had the satisfaction of learning that any capable person is pursuing the plan marked out by Captain Burney in the preface to his first volume, by which distinct portions of the ocean might become the particular study of different individuals: but the propriety of the suggestion is evident, since we see that the entire attention of Captain B. has been usefully bestowed on the South Sea discoveries. Lighter compilations, by misleading the mariner, would be rather injurious than beneficial.

* The *Medusa* Frigate, Captain Sir John Gore, had an extraordinarily rapid voyage to and from India in 1805-6, when she carried out the late Marquis Cornwallis as Governor General. On her return she ran from the Ganges to the Lizard in 84 days, two of which were spent at anchor in St. Helena roads, so that in 82 days she traversed a space of 13,831 miles; i. e. at the average rate of seven miles in an hour for the whole voyage. Of her passage out, which was also unusually quick, we cannot at present state the particulars with precision.

A notice prefixed to this volume indicates the farther labours which may be expected from the author; and it is well worthy of attentive perusal as containing, in the modest form of explanation, judicious precepts for the guidance of those who may hereafter pursue the same design. A third volume, we are told, will probably bring the history down to the commencement of the present reign.

ART. II. *An Inquiry into the Changes induced on Atmospheric Air, by the Germination of Seeds, the Vegetation of Plants, and the Respiration of Animals.* By Daniel Ellis. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Murray. 1807.

THE object of this volume is to give a statement of the discoveries which have been made by modern chemists, respecting the change which the atmosphere experiences from the processes of germination, vegetation, and respiration. Although the subject is of the highest interest, and has exercised the genius of some of the first philosophers of the present age, it is confessedly still involved in much obscurity; we are not infrequently left entirely to the guidance of conjecture; and in those cases in which facts and experiments are adduced, they are sometimes directly contradictory to each other.

Mr. Ellis divides his work into six chapters; the first of which treats on the change induced on the air by the germination of seeds. The principal facts ascertained on this point are, that a certain degree of heat and moisture is absolutely requisite for germination; that in an early stage of the process, the oxygenous part of the atmosphere becomes so likewise; and that the air, in which seeds have germinated, is found to have lost a part of its oxygen, and to have acquired carbonic acid. These conclusions are deduced from the experiments of Mr. Gough, and of MM. Sennebier, Huber, and Saussure, and would appear to be sufficiently established. Respecting the manner in which the change is effected, Mr. Ellis argues at some length to prove that there is no absorption of air by the seed, but that the carbon is emitted, and united to the oxygen surrounding it.

Chapter II. On the change induced on air by vegetation of plants. Water and heat are here, as in the former instance, absolutely essential; and light, although not necessary to the existence of the plant, seems to be requisite to the development of many of its properties. Air is also necessary to vegetation, and the leaves are the parts which act on it: but respecting the nature of the action much uncertainty still prevails.

vails. Dr. Priestley, who first turned the attention of philosophers to this inquiry, thought that vegetation increased the oxygenous portion of the atmosphere, or, as he termed it, improved the air: but his experiments were performed in the infancy of the pneumatic chemistry, and with his characteristic candor he fully acknowledged their imperfection. Other chemists appear to have obtained somewhat different results; and in some experiments performed by Mr. Ellis himself, the effect of vegetation seemed to be the production of carbonic acid, and the absorption of oxygen, in the same manner as in the germination of seeds. The subject, as left by Dr. Priestley, obviously required farther investigation: but we scarcely think that the experiments of Mr. Ellis are sufficiently accurate and numerous to obviate the difficulty. Taking it for granted, however, that the same kind of change is produced on the air by vegetation as by germination, he proceeds to inquire how it is effected; and he concludes that the same event happens here as in the former case, by the carbon being emitted, and united to oxygen exterior to the plant. With respect to the oxygenous gas that is given out by plants when immersed in water, the author thinks that it depends entirely on the nature of the water employed, or rather on the gas which it holds in solution; the plant, in this case, is supposed to act mechanically.

In the III^d chapter, on the respiration of the cold-blooded animals, the facts which are stated rest principally on the experiments of Vauquelin and Spallanzani. It is generally admitted that these animals induce nearly the same kind of change in the air with those of a more perfect organization, but that the degree of effect is much less considerable; oxygen is removed, and carbonic acid is substituted in its place. It appears that the azote is not affected, and the animals with cold blood differ from the others in being able to abstract more completely the oxygenous portion of the air in which they are confined.

The respiration of the human species, quadrupeds, and birds, forms the subject of the IVth chapter. Before he enters on a description of the chemical change induced on the air, Mr. Ellis considers the mechanical effects arising from the different states of the thorax, with respect to its capacity in the alternations of inspiration and expiration, and the quantity of air received and emitted in the ordinary action of the lungs. Few points in physiology have been subject to more various conclusions; the opinions of Dr. Goodwyn, Dr. Menzies, Mr. Davy, and Dr. Bostock, all pass under Mr. E.'s review, and appear to him to be more or less erroneous. The nature of the change induced on the air is, however, sufficiently well

ascertained; the volume is diminished, part of the oxygen is removed, and carbonic acid is substituted in its place. As to the manner in which this change is effected, we are still undecided; and the opinion of Mr. Ellis differs from that which is generally adopted. He argues, at some length, to prove that the air cannot be absorbed by the lungs; that the oxygenous part of it cannot be abstracted by the operation of a chemical affinity between it and the carbon of the blood; and that we have no proof of the emission of carbonic acid from this fluid. Our limits will not permit us to pursue the author through all his train of reasoning. He principally rests his objection on the physical structure of the lungs, which do not appear adapted to the absorption of air; nor indeed, if it were absorbed, would it be carried to the blood, but must follow the course of the absorbent vessels to the thoracic duct.—Mr. E.'s objections to the idea of an affinity subsisting between the oxygen and the blood do not appear to us to be very clearly stated; he remarks that the existence of air in the blood is not proved; and that we cannot explain how the oxygen can pass through the membrane of the lungs so as to arrive at this fluid.—With respect to these objections, it may be observed that it is not oxygenous gas, but oxygen, which is supposed to enter the blood; and we can as easily conceive the entrance of oxygen, as the emission of carbon, through the membrane of the lungs. Besides, it is proved by direct experiment that the intervention of a moistened blood, a much less pervious substance, does not prevent the action of the air on the blood. Mr. Ellis, however, imagines that the change induced on the air in respiration is entirely analogous to that which is effected by vegetation; that carbon is emitted, and united to oxygen contained in the lungs, so as to form carbonic acid; and that, consequently, no portion of the air, nor any of its elements, are received into the blood.

In the Vth chapter, Mr. Ellis inquires into the source of the carbon emitted in the processes that have been described. He thinks that it is, in every instance, discharged from the plant or animal in a state of aqueous solution; he considers the discharge, in all cases, as entirely excrementitious; and in animals, he supposes that it is not immediately derived from the venous blood, but that it is carried off by the exhalents of the lungs, together with the moisture that is emitted from them.—Chapter VI. is principally occupied with remarks on animal temperature.

In reviewing Mr. Ellis's work, we have chiefly endeavoured to point out those circumstances in which his ideas on physiology differ from those of his contemporaries. It would be impossible for us to enter into a regular critique on them, and our

space

space will only permit us to offer a general opinion of their merits. On the whole, then, we do not think that the author has proved his point, either with regard to the effect of vegetation on the air, or with reference to the manner in which the change produced by respiration is accomplished. At the same time, we are ready to acknowledge that the work deserves an attentive perusal, that it contains much valuable matter, and that it displays a candid and ingenuous turn of mind.

ART. III. *An Essay on the Nature of Fever*, being an Attempt to ascertain the Principles of its Treatment. By A. Philips Wilson, M.D. F.R.S. Ed. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Murray. 1807.

OUR readers are not unacquainted with the name of Dr. Wilson, as a respectable writer on the subject of fever: his former works have displayed information and judgment; and we took up the present volume with the expectation of meeting with the same qualities by which we had been gratified on former occasions. We must confess, however, that we have been disappointed; since we have here found little else than attempts to demolish hypotheses that were either altogether forgotten or rapidly mouldering into oblivion, and to establish in their room a train of speculations which, we apprehend; will not prove more durable. For some reason which we cannot clearly understand, the author selects the theories of Hoffmann, Boerhaave, Cullen, and Brown, as being the only modern hypotheses deserving of notice, and enters into a formal refutation of them. With respect to the first two, his attack is merely fighting shadows; and indeed it appears to us cruel to bring forwards the system of Cullen, which has so long ceased to influence the public mind, and which can only be deemed worthy of attention, as forming a part of the valuable body of facts that are contained in the writings of the venerable professor.

A critique on the hypothesis of Brown may be regarded as more excusable, both because some individuals still believe the doctrines or at least employ the language of that school, and because Dr. Wilson himself, in his days of inexperience, was attached to these opinions. He, however, now acknowledges his former errors; and he does this in so manly and candid a manner, as to give us a higher opinion of his good sense than we might have entertained if he had never fallen into them.

Before he enters on a discussion of the Branonian theory of fever, Dr. Wilson makes some remarks on the system in general, which are judicious, and in some respects new.

He particularly controverts the opinion that the primary action of all substances is, in every instance, stimulating; and that the apparent sedation, which is sometimes produced, is merely the consequence of previous exhaustion. He clearly points out that the laws of excitability differ, as it exists in the muscular or nervous systems; and he advances some objections to the common idea of direct and indirect debility. We have afterward some observations on the usual division of the functions of the body into animal, vital, and natural; and we agree with the author that the division is not strictly correct, but that the vital and natural are so closely connected that it is difficult to draw the line between them. He proposes to arrange the whole under two classes, one consisting of the vital and natural functions, to both of which he would give the name of vital; and the other, of the animal. He lays down the following characteristics of them:

‘The vital and natural functions are similar in their nature; have for their object the preservation of life; are performed independently of the will or consciousness of the animal; and immediately depend on organs which possess an excitability that continues unimpaired through life.

‘The animal functions are not concerned in the preservation of life. They have for their object to connect the animal with the external world; are subjected all to the consciousness, many to the will, of the animal; immediately depend on organs of which the other functions are independent, and which possess an excitability subject to a constant alternation of exhaustion and renewal.’

This new classification, however, will probably not be without its difficulties;—some functions, to which the definition of both vital and animal action seems to apply, may in different circumstances be properly placed under either or both of these divisions.

The foundation on which the author erects his theory of fever is thus stated by himself:

‘It appears, that when a debilitating cause is applied to the vital system, the extreme parts of this system lose their tone; that in consequence of this, secretion being impeded, a preternatural stimulus is applied to the heart and larger vessels, which, by exciting them, tends to restore tone to the capillaries, in the same way that an increased action of the larger vessels of an inflamed part tends to restore tone to the capillaries of that part. On this principle, I believe, the whole phenomena of fever may be explained.’

In order to observe how far this principle is correct, we are led to an examination of the symptoms of fever; in which the principal object of the author is to shew that the succession of actions which take place is, first, a temporary debility, succeeded

succeeded by an increased excitement; and lastly a permanent debility. We own, however, that this does not appear to us to convey an idea of the phenomena which are essential to the state of fever; and much less can we agree in what appears to be the opinion of Dr. W. that these actions are necessarily linked together. How often do we observe fevers of the most acute and decided nature, in which, from the commencement, symptoms of complete debility take place, and remain through the whole course of the disease, unchanged in their character and progress? On the other hand, are we not every day in the habit of seeing fevers of the inflammatory type, which, from the first attack, exhibit marks of an increased action of the vessels, and an unusual sensibility of the nervous system? We conceive that these questions must be answered in the affirmative; and it is obvious that, if in one instance only we have a well marked case, in which either the previous debility or the succeeding excitement is absent, their succession cannot be considered as essential to the existence of fever; nor can they be regarded as necessarily connected.

Although we thus decidedly differ from Dr. Wilson in his hypothesis, and cannot but lament that he should have fallen into this unfortunate infatuation of theorizing, it is only justice to acknowledge that many good observations are contained in his account of the disease, and in his view of its treatment. We believe that it has been, for some time, an opinion of practical men, that wine and other powerful stimuli are less frequently necessary than they were supposed to be twenty years ago; and that in many instances the administration of them is even injurious: but we do not recollect ever to have seen the sentiment so fully expressed as in the work before us:

‘When we see a patient labouring under symptoms of extreme debility, and find these symptoms almost uniformly relieved by a considerable quantity of wine, it is difficult, at first view, to persuade ourselves that the wine is pernicious; but an attentive observer will look beyond its immediate effects, and will then readily see sufficient reason to doubt the safety of this practice. He will find, that the temporary excitement he thus procured is succeeded by a greater degree of debility than that which the stimulus had removed, and if he perseveres in this plan, that in a large proportion of cases the pulse, upon the whole, will gradually become more frequent and feeble till it ceases altogether. These effects I have so often witnessed, that I cannot help thinking that almost any fever may be rendered fatal by a certain quantity of wine. And when we recollect that the excessive stimulus of wine is a frequent cause of fever, can we be surprised that the constant repetition of this stimulus should increase its symptoms?’

‘ Besides the apparent good effects of wine for a short time after its exhibition, physicians have been led to an excessive use of it in typhus by another observation, the comparatively small effects it produces. “That a pint of wine in typhus will not produce a greater effect than a glass in health, is adduced as an argument for the pint in the one case being as innocent as the glass in the other. But it is to be recollected, that wine in typhus only produces less excitement than in health, in proportion as the remaining excitability is less, and, consequently, that a degree of excitement which would occasion little or no inconvenience in health, may produce a fatal exhaustion in typhus. Here there is no excitability to spare, and the first principle of the treatment seems to be as much as possible to prevent its farther exhaustion. A very moderate and uniform exhibition of stimuli seems often necessary, that the action of the central parts of the sanguiferous system may not fall too low to support that of the circumference, but all excitement beyond this seems to have no other effect than that of exhausting the little vigour which yet remains.’

For a part of these remarks, which are contained in a note in the Appendix, Dr. Wilson refers to observations on the use of wine in Typhus by Dr. James Hamilton, in his work on Purgative Medicines.

ART. IV. *The Satires of Juvenal*: translated and illustrated by Francis Hodgson, A. M., Fellow of King's College, Cambridge, 4to. pp. 572. Price, to Subscribers, 1l. 11s. 6d.; to Non-subscribers, 2l. Payne and Mackinlay. 1807.

THE common opinion of critics has decided that Juvenal has fallen into some of the most serious errors of style, both as to language and arrangement, which are usually charged on the declining ages of Roman literature: but his faults are redeemed by the noblest excellences; and no writer of antiquity has commanded more of the respect and admiration of powerful minds, in every age and country. If he may be censured alternately for harsh abruptness and turgid declamation;—if he often involves a plain assertion in an obscure periphrasis, and occasionally loses both himself and his meaning in a labyrinth of mythological allusion, while he suffers perhaps even more than other satirists by our ignorance of contemporary anecdote;—yet these defects in his manner are forgotten, when we contemplate the grand features of his mind. His masculine genius, his high-toned morality, his noble contempt for meanness, and his irresistible indignation against vice, place him in the first rank of writers formed for the improvement and correction of man. We are inclined to believe that the distinguishing traits of his character

character are peculiarly consonant to the habits of thinking which have long prevailed in England; an opinion which might be supported by observing that none of the antient poets has, to our knowlege, been so frequently rendered entire into our language; and certainly no foreign writer has ever been so highly honoured as Juvenal by two poetical translations of his complete works, executed almost at the same period, by such writers as Mr. Gifford and Mr. Hodgson. The successful attempt of the former has already received our thanks and our applause*. It is fit that the motive of Mr. Hodgson, (who always appears deeply sensible of the merits of his predecessor,) for offering a new translation to the public, should be explained in his own words:

‘ Mr. Gifford, in a part of his very entertaining essay on the Roman satirists, observes that there is a slovenliness in some of Juvenal’s verses, for which he has been justly blamed, as it would have cost him so little pains to improve them. But, generally speaking, (as Mr. Gifford, by the slight exception he has made, I suppose allows) the poetry of Juvenal has a remarkably equable and harmonious flow. To my ears, I confess, there is hardly among the Latin poets one, whose versification sounds more musically, or seems to have run with less labour from the author. Surely then such a writer should appear in English with as few discontinued and broken lines as possible. Indeed, however allowable these interruptions may be in Latin hexameters, in English rhymes they certainly are not, when the disjointed verse recurs frequently.—

‘ I think then that Mr Gifford, by his predominant desire of giving as much as he could of the original, in as small a compass of poetical translation as possible; by his fear of giving a wider diffusion to the sense; has admitted too many of these broken lines: and it seems as if he had been convinced of this himself; for his second edition is greatly improved in smoothness and evenness of versification.

‘ The attentive reader will find that I have not omitted much of Juvenal in my translation. I have, assuredly, retained more than Dryden; though perhaps less (and yet I do not know this) than Mr. Gifford.

‘ The extent, then, of my ambition, and it is no moderate one, has been this; not to reach the height of Dryden, where Dryden has chosen to leave all below him; yet, upon the whole, to give a more faithful version of Juvenal than he and his associates have given; and, at the same time, to do it in such a manner as to offend an English ear with fewer instances of interrupted versification than those which (originally at least) occurred in the pages of Mr. Gifford.’

Having objected to Mr. Gifford, in our review of his work, the extreme diffusion in which he appeared to us to

* See M. Rev. vol. xl. N. S. p. 1.

have indulged, we find ourselves, at the very outset of our examination, still more directly at issue with the present translator. It is true that we considered the former as liable to censure on another account, and freely stated that his expressions were too often low and uncouth, his versification broken and unmusical. These faults ought never to be found in the same work, since the licence of expansion excludes the plea of necessity for falling into inelegant or inharmonious language. For our own part, indeed, we are by no means convinced that freedom and fidelity are incompatible, nor that it is necessary to sacrifice the graces even of poetical composition to the correctness of representation. We have lately been called to defend such principles of prose-translation as we conceive to be in danger of becoming obsolete, in our review of Dr. Steuart's Sallust: (see our last Number :) but we are saved the trouble of applying them to poetical works, by finding them stated in a note to Mr. Hodgson's preface, with all the limitations and restrictions which, in our opinion, the difficulty of the task requires :

• The English language compels diffuseness ; a literal version is impossible ; the Latin verse is nearly a fifth longer than our own ; and the very nature of rhyme, forbidding one line to run into another, often obliges us to stretch phrases (for to contract them is seldom possible) very capriciously, for the benefit of the couplet. Then come the great curses of Gothicism, crowds of auxiliary verbs—and the “ the's, my's, thy's, em's, us's—” which make our barbarous jargons, with their inharmonious monosyllables, bear the same resemblance to the ancient languages, that a modern-built church, dotted with windows, bears to the graceful and commanding simplicity of a Grecian temple consisting of pillars. “ Expansion, for these reasons,” (continues the friend, who suggested much of this note to my consideration) “ is, I think, almost always necessary ; but we must not take calomel in a looseness. The more moderately and sparingly we use our privilege of dilating, the better probably and the stronger in expression will the poem be ; at all events, the translation of Juvenal will be more complete. Ad summam—the difference between us is, I conceive, this ; you seem satisfied with attempting to clothe the spirit of the author in an English body ; I think body and spirit should be the same, and nothing altered but the dress ; that an exact resemblance in all points should be the first object ; and that the *effect will generally be copied with the words* ; but if not, that nothing but the most unbending stubbornness of idiom, or obscurity of allusion, should drive you to a change.”

Many legitimate reasons are given, to shew that a poem translated from the Latin must necessarily occupy a much larger space than the original. ‘ The average of syllables in

in Latin hexameters is perhaps about fifteen*; as many as three dactyles usually occurring in a verse. So that a person, who attempted to translate Latin hexameters line for line into English heroic poetry, would have five extra syllables to cram into every verse; which particular difficulty would be no slight one, not to mention the general conciseness of the Latin language (from the inflections of its nouns and verbs, and various other causes) compared with the "wild plenty" of the English.'

We are willing to allow that these arguments prove the impossibility of making a translation keep pace exactly with an original, and the absurdity of attempting to render a classical work "line for line": but in our judgment, whatever evinces that a perfect fidelity cannot be preserved should make the translator doubly cautious of wanton amplification. Fidelity and closeness (where they are not inconsistent with the purity of idiomatic English) are surely in the highest degree desirable, though perhaps never completely to be attained: but the sort of observation which we combat is that, because we cannot accomplish all, we should attempt nothing; and that an occasional necessity for departing from reasonable rules should introduce and authorise an universal licentiousness. We are aware that the indolence of translators has given popularity to negligence; and their notions generally resolve themselves into this well known common-place that an antient author, instead of having his style correctly imitated, must be made to express himself "as he would have done if he had composed his work originally in English;" a maxim very capable, at first sight, of captivating the ear, but which the slightest examination will discover to be void of any determinate meaning.

Perhaps we have dwelt too long on our own ideas of the arduous duties of a translator; which may, after all, exact a degree of precision that will be fatal in many instances, to the more valuable qualities of freedom and animation. Mr. Hodgson fairly professes to have made his election between difficulties that we supposed to be irreconcilable; and he declares that, instead of laboring to preserve 'the sudden turns, the strong points, and striking contrasts of Juvenal,' he has leant 'to another peculiarity of his character, that sweeping grandeur of declamation, that exalted style of poetical oratory, which are the chief properties of this sonorous writer.' Thus warned of the system on which the translator has proceeded, we now hasten to lay before our readers some specimens of the success of his execution.

* Dryden rates the number at less, Johnson as above.

The translation is preceded by a Prologue, containing a rapid sketch of the progress of Satire among the antients. This common subject is here treated with a degree of spirit, originality, and address, which inspired us with no mean opinion of Mr. H.'s poetical powers. The characters of Lucilius, Horace, and Juvenal, are more strongly marked, and the two latter more boldly distinguished, than we remember to have seen them in any other writer :

‘ The great Auruncan chose a higher flight,
And genuine Satire shed a sudden light ;
With surer bolts she struck the guilty soul,
And shudd’ring villains own’d her new controul.

‘ So erst in Greece, that old dramatic choir
Stamp’d the bad brow with Satire’s honest fire —
Lucilius brought their bold example home,
And smote with rival warmth the knaves of Rome ;
Took from the Greeks their noble plan alone,
Their measure chang’d, and made the praise his own.
Skreen’d in the shade of Scipio’s awful name,
Lucilius shot his darts with ventrous aim ;
Like Teucer safe behind the sev’n-fold shield,
He chas’d each hostile Mutius from the field.

‘ The courteous Horace next was heard to sing,
A contrast wide as wintry storms and spring !
There Nature’s rage, irregular and wild,
Here the soft air of Art’s accomplish’d child,
Too roughly that the stubborn truth convey’d,
Too gently this with tickled folly play’d ;
Scarce prais’d the right, and scarce expos’d the wrong,
Skimm’d o’er life’s surface in his easy song ;
And taught the struggling soul that captive gait,
That vain urbanity which wins the Great.’—

‘ But lo ! the rapid torrent rushes down
On the pale monsters of the startled town ;
Rapid, yet clear, though smoothly flowing, strong,
The liquid force of that Aquinian song !
Back to his school let moral Persius fly,
And vainly preach the Stoic’s apathy ;
The world’s great master trembles on his throne
At lofty Juvenal’s undaunted tone.
No dogmas of the porch his bosom guide,
No grave Cornutus lectures at his side ;
But, as from truth’s celestial fount he drinks,
His virtue utters what his wisdom thinks.

‘ Now, undisguis’d, each savage Tyrant stood,
And Rome was delug’d in her children’s blood ;
The poet’s courage with the danger grew,
And fiercely at the eagle’s nest he flew ;
With daring soul tyrannic pow’r defied,
Spoke the plain truth, and spoke it, though he died.

His

His noble rage despis'd all humbler game,
 And branded Vice, however high her name ;
 To slavish use no weak respect he paid,
 But still rever'd the Senate's empty shades ;
 Call'd back the glories of the past in vain,
 And breath'd his strong, republican disdain.'

The first Satire of Juvenal is valuable for the force and spirit with which whole catalogues of follies and corruptions are brought together in the gross, as motives for venting his indignant verse against his countrymen. We quote the first passage on this subject,—the same of which we presented Mr. Gifford's translation to our readers :

' Yet while o'er Satire's dang'rous path I run,
 And trace the chariot of Aurunca's son,
 Attend, unprejudic'd—AND ASK YE THIS,
 When the soft eunuch courts the wedded kiss !
 When Mævia naked to the waist appears,
 And at the boar directs her deadly spears ;
 When all our lords to him in riches yield,
 Who reap'd my manly chin's resounding field ;
 When proud Crispinus o'er his back displays
 Tyre's radiant purple to the public gaze ;
 The refuse once of his Egyptian home,
 Canopus' scandal—now the boast of Rome !
 Wearing a lighter ring in Summer's heat,
 And fanning his fair hand beneath the weight—
 Who can refrain from Satire's bursting rage,
 Nor lash the crimes of this corrupted age ?'

We must not withhold the poet's annunciation of the general objects of his muse :

' From that old time, when 'mid the gen'ral flood
 Deucalion safely on the mountain stood,
 There moor'd his little bark, and, bending, pray'd
 (Nor vain his pray'r) for Heav'n's continued aid ;
 When, wond'rous sight ! the soft'ning stones began
 To breathe, and move, and kindle into man ;
 From days when naked innocence was known,
 Down to the tainted manners of our own ;
 The mad varieties of busy life,
 Pleasure's smooth course, and passion's giddy strife,
 Cares, hopes, and fears, of every following age,
 Fill the wide circuit of my motley page.

' And when did vice so flourishing before
 Spread with her pois'nous weeds the nation o'er ?
 First, when did av'rice with so wide a sail
 Catch the full favour of the public gale ?
 When sate such spirit on the gambler's brow ?
 When rose the main to such a stake as now ?
 See, as around the fatal board they stand,
 And shake the dice-box with determin'd hand,

How deep, how dreadful is the contest there,
 What bursts of joy ! what looks of blank despair !
 As the pale steward opens the waning chest,
 Thousands are gone—but madness risks the rest,
 Nor leaves enough for one poor cloak behind,
 To guard a shiv'ring menial from the wind.'

From the second Satire, we can only transcribe the gloomy prospect of another world ; having first premised that we do not adopt Mr. Hodgson's interpretation of the disputed phrase "*talis umbra*," which to us appears clearly applicable to those who are guilty of the offences previously exposed, and not to unbelievers in the pagan system :

' Realms of eternal night beyond the grave,
 The gloomy boatman on the Stygian wave ;
 The shadowy thousands that he ferries o'er
 To tort'ring dæmons from that dreary shore—
 Those mournful realms to modern sceptics seem
 The visionary terrors of a dream :
 By none believ'd, so impious are the times,
 But boys untutor'd in their father's crimes ;
 Yet from the bath's abhorr'd contagion free,
 And blest with youth's untainted purity.
But doubt not thou.—When, 'mid the mighty dead,
 Who nobly triumph'd, or as nobly bled ;
 Great Scipio's soul, Camillus' awful ghost,
 And Cremera's, and Cannæ's slaughter'd host ;
 When, from this earth, an unbelieving sprite
 Descends to them—they shudder at the sight ;
 Bid through the shades the lustral torches glow,
 And all around the cleansing waters throw—
 But vain the holy rite, the pious pray'r, below.
 ' There shall we all, from this too pleasing sky,
 Believe or not, be hurried when we die ;
 There shall our soaring eagle sink at last,
 Though his proud wing Juvena's shore has past ;
 And Britain, where the short solstitial night
 Scarce intercepts the day's continued light ;*
 Though to new conquest onward still he flies,
 And at the pole is seen with trembling eyes.'

The third Satire abounds with forcible passages : but it is so well known to the English reader by means of Dr. Johnson's imitation, and naturally appears with so much more advantage as a paraphrase than it can derive from a literal translation, that no extracts could possess the charm of novelty, and all comparison would be unjust. For this reason, and from the impossibility of offering specimens of each particular Satire,

* The meaning in these two lines appears incomplete.

we shall abstain from selecting any part either of the third or the tenth. It is in the fourth that Juvenal first condescends to playfulness and humour; and indeed the subject precluded his usual gravity of style, while it provoked all the severity of his sarcasm. The gigantic turbot, which was caught in the Adriatic, of too vast a size for any but the imperial table, is traced by active *delatores* from the coast to the shambles, and produces a curious illustration of the principle of *mare clausum*, and the sovereignty of the seas:

“ Restore the fish! from Cæsar’s ponds it came;
Restore the fish, and honour Cæsar’s claim.
Hear how the lawyers of the crown declare
That all the sea contains of rich and fair
Is the revenue of the king alone—
Then hope not such a treasure for thine own.”

“ Oh let it go,” in haste the fisher cries,
“ For autumn clouds the pestilential skies;
Autumn’s last breath attaints the blasted year,
And sick’ning crowds the fatal ague fear.”

The unresisting fisherman conveys his prodigy to Alba, where the Roman Senate,—in better times the disposer of provinces, and the arbiter of the world,—is convened to decide the fate of a fish:

‘ Unhappy Senate! in whose pallid face
Sits the sad curse of pension and of place;
Suspected favour, and dissembled hate,
And all the injurious friendship of the great.’

The sitting passes off, as might be expected, with a full acknowledgement of the Emperor’s right, and the most flattering congratulations on this auspicious event. The several members of that august body are brought on the stage in a very striking manner; and the portrait of Crispus, a worthy man, though a pliant courtier in the worst of times, who was led imperceptibly to sacrifice his rectitude to habitual ease, abounds with instruction:

‘ Look where in sight old Crispus next appears,
Old, but good-humour’d in the vale of years;
Whose gentle life, that never gave offence,
Was pictur’d in his pleasant eloquence.
Where for the Man, who spreads his ample reign
O’er earth and sea, and all that they contain,
So useful a companion could we find
As modest Crispus, with his virtuous mind?
If with a voice unbiass’d, bold, and free,
He might have check’d the strides of cruelty:
Beheld the scourge of Rome, unaw’d by fear,
And brav’d the fierceness of a tyrant’s ear;

Hurt at the threaten'd hail, the heat or cold,
 And black with anger at a storm foretold.
 ' But Crispus ne'er indulg'd so vain a dream,
 Nor ever swam against th' impetuous stream;
 He ne'er with patriot fires had warm'd his youth,
 Nor stak'd existence on a fatal truth.
 So, many a winter, many a summer ran
 Calm and unclouded o'er the phiant man;
 E'en in that court, amid despotic rage,
 In flatt'ry's armour safe to latest age.'

At the moment in which we are beginning to wonder that the poet should have indulged so long in calm irony and plain details of character, his native genius bursts out in an unrivalled strain of mingled contempt and indignation:

' And oh! that ever in such idle sport
 Had liv'd the lord of that obsequious court;
 Nor, worse employ'd in savage scenes of blood,
 Had robb'd the city of the brave and good—
 While highborn cowards saw their brothers' doom,
 And vengeance slumber'd o'er the Lamian tomb.
 But when he dar'd assail a vulgar head,
 Uprose the people, and the tyrant bled.'

These last lines immediately lead us on to the merited attack on the degraded nobility of Rome contained in the eighth Satire; which is translated by a friend* of the author in a style that, without any marks of studied imitation, bears a strong resemblance to the energetic simplicity of Dryden. The maxims and familiar observations are rendered with much felicity. Thus

*"Rarus enim ferme sensus communis in illâ
 Fortuna,—"*

' For plain good sense, first blessing of the sky,
 Is rarely met with in a state so high.'

*"Miserum est aliorum incumbere fame,
 Ne collapsa neant subductis tecta columnis,—"*

' 'Tis weak to rest on others your renown;
 Shake but the pillar, the whole pile falls down.'

We need not transcribe at length the noble lines beginning *Esto bonus miles, tutor bonus, &c.* (v. 79.) which are perfectly known to every scholar, in order to make the merit of the following translation understood:

* J. H. Merivale, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn.

' Be thou, thyself, in war thy country's sword,
 In peace the upright judge and gen'rous lord ;
 If ever summon'd by the sacred laws
 A witness in some dark, uncertain cause,
 Though Phalaris himself command the lie,
 And present torments prompt the perjury,
 Count it an evil, worse than flames or death,
 To barter honour for this short liv'd breath ;
 Or, for the sake of fickle life, to give
 That, which alone should make thee wish to live.
 Worthy his fate, the perjur'd wretch will die,
 How great soe'er his wealth and luxury ;
 Though he lie plung'd in essenc'd baths, and eat
 A hundred Lucrine oysters at a treat.'

The few lines, in which Nero is contrasted with Orestes, both stained with the blood of a mother, are very spirited :

' Like the mad Greek, his mother's blood he spilt,
 The act the same—but oh how wide the guilt !
 One rose th' avenger of his father's dust,
 Slain at the feast, a sacrifice to lust ;
 The gods inspir'd him, and the deed was just.
 He never touch'd Electra's sacred head ;
 He never stain'd with blood his Spartan bed,
 Nor drugg'd the bowl with fratricidal rage—
 He never sang upon an Argive stage,
 Nor wrote dull Troics.'

The bathos immediately subjoined, ' Nor wrote dull Troics,' is to be charged on Juvenal, not on his translator.

Mr. Hodgson justly observes that the ninth Satire possesses only one passage that is qualified for giving pleasure to the reader :

' Oh ! how shall I recall the moments gone,
 Blasted in hope, and utterly undone !
 Swift down the pathway of declining years,
 As on we journey through this vale of tears,
 Youth wastes away, and withers like a flow'r,
 The lovely phantom of a fleeting hour.
 Mid the light sallies of the mantling soul,
 The smiles of beauty, and the social bowl,
 Inaudible, the foot of chilly age
 Steals on our joys, and drives us from the stage.' *

* Mr. Gifford's version is closer to the original, *obrepit non intellecta senectus* :

" The noiseless foot of Time steals swiftly by,
 And ere we dream of manhood, age is nigh." Rev.

In

In Satire eleven, which is an invitation to a friend, the surly Roman lays aside his sternness, and appears in the amiable character of an open-hearted host; though it was not to be expected that he should lose so favorable an opportunity of contrasting the purity of antient manners with those of his own times :

' Such was the board our ancient senate spread,
These were the banquets of the virtuous dead ;
So curious gather'd with industrious hand,
The herbs that flourish'd in his plot of land ;
Trimm'd his small fire, and cook'd the plain repast
That modern slaves would sneer at, and would fast :
Slaves, chain'd to work, and banish'd far from home,
But still rememb'ring the delights of Rome ;
Rememb'ring still the *stripes* * on which they fed,
And their low revels at the Cæsar's head †.'

The interesting poem which follows, describing the escape of a beloved friend from shipwreck, and the festivities with which Juvenal honoured the event, would not have deserved the title of a Satire, if it did not undergo a violent distortion, towards the close, to the subject of legacy-hunting. This is perhaps the most prominent instance of that sudden change of thought and manner, which so often exposes Juvenal's taste to censure. The former and more pleasing part of this composition is here very successfully translated.

It may be considered as surprising that the thirteenth Satire has not been more frequently attempted by our poets; the subject being in its nature general and unconfined, the morality (with some trifling and not obvious exceptions) perfectly consistent with our own, and the style of thinking throughout peculiarly just and powerful. Mr. Hodgson has here also availed himself of the assistance of a friend‡, who appears qualified to give a faithful representation of all that is striking and solemn in the original. Having already approached the limits for quotation, and deeming it necessary to lay before our readers one or two extracts more, we can here select only a single passage, descriptive of the *animus tortor* which persecutes the guilty through all the scenes of ordinary life :

* Gifford renders *uvula* by *savory teats*; the paps of a sow with pig, and a part of the belly, properly seasoned, being a favourite dish with the Romans. *Rev.*

† The latter part of this passage is here greatly expanded. *Rev.*

‡ Mr. B. Drury, of Eton.

' These are the souls who shrink with pale affright,
 When harmless lightnings purge the sultry night ;
 Who faint, when hollow rumblings from afar
 Foretell the wrath of elemental war ;
 Nor deem it chance nor wind that caus'd the din,
 But Jove himself in arms to punish sin.
 That bolt was innocent—that storm is pass'd—
 More loud, more fatal, each succeeding blast—
 Deceitful calms but nurse combustion dire,
 And tranquil skies are fraught with embryo fire.'

The most important, practical, and truly moral, of all these poems, (except the xth,) is the fourteenth, in which parents are cautioned against corrupting their children by pernicious example. If the coarseness of Juvenal's language, and his frequent recurrence to revolting images, in other places, have thrown some doubt on the sincerity of his wishes to reform by chastising, this excellent satire is sufficient for his vindication. What but the most zealous love of virtue could have produced this impressive warning ?

' Let nothing lewd be said, no vice appear
 Within this threshold, for a boy is here.
 The greatest rev'rence to a boy is due—
 Shrink, guilty father, from his conscious view,
 Scorn not his tender years, but, shudd'ring, fly
 The black pollution, for your child is nigh.
 Oh ! if hereafter that unlucky child
 Offend the censor with his courses wild,
 (And he'll be like thee not in face alone,
 But in his morals too thy very son,)
 If from the thorns of Virtue's rugged way,
 As thou didst once, the stripling runs astray,
 Thou'lt chide, forsooth, his prodigal career,
 And leave a shilling to thy graceless heir !
 How canst thou dare a father's freedom use,
 And with loud rage his wanton prime abuse,
 While on thy years still fouler blots are seen,
 And the dry wood's more rotten than the green.'

What can exceed the picture of the good old principles of the early common-wealth ?

' In that rude time, the soldier worn with age,
 And Punic spears, and Pyrrhus' hostile rage,
 Receiv'd at last, for all his bloody toil,
 Scarce two poor acres of the parent soil.
 Nor unrewarded did he think his scars,
 Or Rome forgetful of her hero's wars ;
 But dwelt contented in the narrow spot,
 With the dear tenants of his straw-roof'd cot ;

His pregnant wife within, and playful round,
 Four smiling infants on the verdant ground,
 Three little masters, and their slave beside,
 All blest alike, and undisturb'd by pride ;
 While for their brothers, lab'ring in the farm,
 Plac'd on the fire was seen the pottage warm,
 A larger mess than their's, when ev'ning's shade
 Call'd the stout rustics from the woodland glade ;
 Whose poor allotment would but ill afford
 One kitchen garden to a modern lord.'

Juvenal's prophecy, that an ill-instructed son will plunge far deeper in vice than even the worst of parents could design or wish, is illustrated by a reference to the love of money, with wonderful sagacity and knowledge of human nature. This is, in effect, the awful moral of the Satire:

' Wealk, that you sought o'er many a land and sea,
 He gains at once by desp'rate villainy.
 " Wretch that he is ! " astonish'd will you cry,
 " Were these my doctrines ? did I teach him, I ? "
 You were the source and origin of ill—
 For, to inspire an avaricious will,
 With base advice to poison youthful hearts,
 And teach them sordid, money-getting, arts,
 Is to release the horses from the rein,
 And let them whirl the chariot o'er the plain ;
 Forward they gallop from the less'ning goal,
 Deaf to the voice of impotent controul.'

The numerous extracts, which we have made, will naturally lead to the inference that our sentiments are decidedly favourable to this translation : but we trust that the materials here collected will be found sufficient to enable our readers to form their own judgment on its merits, which we have rather refrained from anticipating by our observations. It is but justice to add, that our specimens have not been selected on account of any imagined superiority in those parts of the work, but because the merit of the original passages attracted our particular notice to them. The whole, indeed, is executed with such remarkable uniformity, that, even had we taken extracts at random, they would probably have been equal to the above ; and the faults, in our estimation, are solely to be attributed to the too liberal principles of translation adopted in the present instance, of which our readers are already apprized. This cause, with an anxiety to preserve the smoothness of versification, by expressing every object in couplets or perfect lines, has sometimes produced feebleness and an unnecessary mul-

tiplication of epithets, and sometimes additions inconsistent with the original. Thus, in the opening of the fifth Satire :

‘ If thou canst bear in base dependance still
To live the creature of another’s will,
Canst sponge and wheedle for the gratis feast,
Still laugh’d at, still despised, *but still a guest,*’ &c.

the second couplet is an interpolation, which alters the character of the person addressed. Trebius is not a parasite, who has the talent of procuring invitations to the tables of the great by cringing and flattery: but he is a miserable client, who has a certain family claim on the hospitality of a single patron, yet is scarcely ever invited, and is condemned, at each visit, to encounter all the varieties of insult and degradation.—In the 6th Satire, the habit of amplification has betrayed Mr. Hodgson into an exaggerated caricature, where the original picture was sufficiently strong. We allude to his version of the lines,

“ *Sed potanda ferens infantibus ubera magnis,
Et saepe horridior glandem ructante marito.*”

We ought not, however, to dismiss this Satire without observing generally (for no particular extracts will be expected,) that he has extricated himself from the difficulties of his task with much spirit and dexterity.

Again, towards the close of the tenth Satire, where Juvenal points out the uncertain quality of the things for which we pray, and contrasts our blind wishes with the divine prescience, he observes :

— “ *Nos animorum
Impulsu, & ceca magnaque cupidine ducti,
Conjugium petimus, partumque uxoris : at ILLIS
Notum, qui pueri, qualisque futura sit uxor.*”

The translator, not satisfied with warning us how *uncertain* are the consequences of this important connection, states them as probably disastrous :

‘ By a blind impulse violently driven,
We claim a wife and family from Heaven,
But Heaven best knows how *vile* our wife may be,
How *shameless* our *ungrateful* family.’ (p. 205.)

In the concluding lines of this Satire, Mr. Hodgson has not been so successful as Mr. Gifford, whose translation of the famous apostrophe to Fortune (extracted in our review of his work) appears to us the *ne plus ultra* in this department of literature. We cannot agree, however, with either of these gentlemen in thinking that any impiety or incorrectness is to

be imputed to the "*monstro quod ipse tibi possis dare*," as long as mankind are considered to be free moral agents.

We might perhaps accumulate instances in which a regard for the polish of numbers and for the flow of diction has produced some injustice to the sense of the Roman poet: but they would all class themselves under the general observation with which we began, and are besides never injurious to that general effect which Mr. Hodgson has successfully laboured to produce.

So large a portion of this volume is occupied by the notes, that we can scarcely decline a distinct examination of them; yet one circumstance appears to render it unnecessary for us to dwell on them at any length:—they have but little relation to Juvenal, and contain few explanations of his obscure passages, few critical comments, and no various readings. In fact, they all bear the marks of having been composed under the influence of spleen and disgust, very naturally excited against the various abuses of the duties of an editor, by which the present author has peculiarly suffered in the hands of his German commentators: but, though painful experience has taught us to participate in these sentiments, we really think that they have been allowed to operate too extensively in the case before us. In avoiding one extreme, Mr. Hodgson is in great danger of falling into another, which is even more mischievous; it is easy for any person to pass over superfluous annotations, but the general reader, who does not find the explanation of which he stands in need, can proceed no farther in the book; and nobody will deny that the Satires here translated demand frequent and copious illustration, before they can be properly understood and relished. We perfectly acquiesce in the propriety of placing the notes by themselves, at the end of the work: 'a poem should be read quite through, before it is examined in detail;' and if we may continue ignorant for a time of the whole meaning of particular passages, in consequence of the adoption of this method, it may be far better than putting the general effect to hazard by perpetual reference to notes at the bottom of every page. Yet we may venture to assure Mr. H. that few of his readers will be satisfied with a single perusal; and that they will be too much interested by his representation of Juvenal, not to wish for a complete acquaintance with him.

It will always be our pride to defend the cause of learning against the attacks of book-makers, and to stand among the foremost champions (as Mr. H. expresses it) of TEXT against COMMENT: but, on this subject, let us be clearly understood. The plodding investigator of the minutest facts described, to
8 which

which allusion is made, and the explorer of all the hidden recesses of political or religious customs, may perhaps be neither a poet nor a philosopher: but if those facts or customs, however unimportant in themselves, elucidate the writings of classical authors, we think that his occupation is useful and praiseworthy. He will have enabled the admirers of a noble work to enter into all its beauties; and he may often, by ascertaining particular points, throw an unexpected light collaterally on matters of the highest consequence. Every scholar's recollection will readily supply him with instances of the advantage derived to history from accidental passages in poetry; and it is indeed impossible to assign any limits to the discoveries, which may be elicited in this manner. Up to this point, therefore, the commentator has rendered a valuable service to literature; and as far as his comparisons of the various readings in MSS. assist his researches for the purposes above described, they also may deserve encouragement: but, when these limits are transgressed,—when the editor takes advantage of a well known name to obtrude on the public his own common-place remarks, his own dogmatical censure and capricious praise, and perhaps too his personal altercations with rival commentators, accompanied by all the bitterness which is ever attached to squabbles on trivial subjects,—he then deserves a degree of indignation proportioned to the magnitude of the trust which he breaks, and to the value of the text which is swallowed up in his irrelevant *excursus*.

With us it is certainly a matter of regret that all the more obvious difficulties which occur in Juvenal have not been illustrated in the present version; especially because those explanations which are inserted are in general neat and satisfactory*. We must not, however, forget to inform our readers that the notes contain a valuable selection of translated classical poetry. The minor Latin poems, with which we are presented in very spirited English verse, are numerous, and often naturally introduced. Many of the epigrams of Martial are properly connected with the Satires of his friend; and we are little inclined to complain of the beautiful extracts from Statius, Claudian, and others, though we recognize no

* In noticing the preceding efforts which have been made to illustrate the difficult passage in Sat. I. *Pone Tigellinum*, &c. Mr. H. speaks of 'the volley of nonsense which commentators have successively let fly at this unhappy passage:' but his own explanation is not in our view so fortunate as that which Mr. Gifford has given; since it is not easy to conceive how, as he suggests, the hunting of the christians by dogs could make furrows.

manifest necessity for printing them here, and though they might perhaps have been as well collected in a separate work. With a few additions, they would form an interesting volume,—an object which we recommend to Mr. Hodgson's attention.

An important feature in these notes still remains to be observed; and it would be vain to dissemble our surprise at many of the criticisms on antient and modern authors which they contain. The opinions, however, from which we dissent, are much too numerous to be confuted or even examined in this place, and we must be satisfied with entering a general protest against them. We are more willing to contemplate Mr. Hodgson as a poet than as a critic; and we are confident that all, who are capable of feeling his powers in the former character, will readily forgive his omissions and overlook his defects in the latter.

ART. X. *Struggles through Life*, exemplified in the various Travels and Adventures in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, of Lieutenant John Harriott, formerly of Rochford in Essex; now Resident Magistrate of the Thames Police. 12mo. 2 Vols. pp. 722. 14s. Boards. Hatchard, &c. 1807.

MR. John Harriot was the son of respectable though not of wealthy parents, and began his career of life at the age of thirteen as a midshipman on board a ship of war; in which, after having been sent to several parts of America, he cruised a long time in the Mediterranean, and visited Gibraltar, St. Jean d'Acre, Corsica, and Lisbon. On his return to England, while steering under easy sail for Plymouth, the ship was wrecked off the Mewstone, and her crew was with difficulty preserved from immediate death.

This unpromising commencement only fixed him in the resolution of continuing in the naval service, which he preferred to a very advantageous offer of settling in trade. He went out a second time in a frigate, was present at the siege, but not at the capture, of the Havannah, and was active at the re-taking of Newfoundland from the French. When peace was concluded, he entered into the mercantile service, sailed up the Baltic, and again to the West Indies and America: but, conceiving some disgust, and impelled by an unconquerable spirit of enterprise, adventure, and inquiry, he formed the bold project of residing with a tribe of North American savages; and he actually remained four months with the Oneidas and Tuscaroras, studying their manners, and sharing their toils and dangers. His next station was in the
military

military service of the East India Company; he arrived at Madras just at the close of the war with Hyder Ally, and was useful in introducing the Prussian practice and discipline, which had been lately established in England. He acted also as judge advocate to a considerable district, as chaplain to the army, and as parish priest to the neighbourhood, in the absence of regular professional men. A severe wound on one of his legs compelled him reluctantly to relinquish these occupations, and to quit the service; but, declining all offers of settling in a civil capacity at Madras, the Cape, or St. Helena, as well as an invitation from some oriental savages to make a trial of their way of life, he returned to his native country, married, and was so unfortunate as to lose his wife and child within a year.

After having tried various occupations, and married a second time, Mr. H. devoted himself entirely to farming, and purchased for 40l. an island comprising between two and three hundred acres, but generally covered by the sea, from which he thought that it might be rescued by embankments. His hopes were realized; his expences were repaid; the Society of Arts honoured him with their medal; his returns became considerable, and promised a handsome competence: but alas! he 'was destined to see the little all of his hard-earned property swallowed up by the ocean.' This calamity, in conjunction with a fire which destroyed his house but a few months before, reduced him to absolute ruin.

The kindness of friends, and the sympathy of neighbours, supported and consoled a mind not easily depressed; and the liberality of Mr. H.'s creditors enabled him to try his fate as a settler in North America, whither his third wife and family accompanied him. After having encountered perpetual disappointment in a tour through many of the States, and a tedious journey to the back-lands for the purpose of discovering a favourable spot, he purchased a small farm in Rhode Island; which, however, he was soon compelled to relinquish by the violent irritation against England and Englishmen which at that time (1795) pervaded the United States. Yet he no sooner returned to England, than he entered into a new speculation for making large purchases in Georgia, (for the ultimate use of our government, as we collect from the narrative,) which was defeated by a breach of promise in respect to the advance of money by his associate in the concern. Notwithstanding this disappointment also, he became master of a farm in Long Island: but the want of society, the evil influence of a vicious neighbourhood on his sons, the difficulty of obtaining assistance, and the improbability of ever realizing so large

a property as he had expected, induced him to 'cross the atlantic for the fourteenth time.' Without detailing the various objects which passed through his mind as offering a provision for himself and a large family, we state with pleasure that he now enjoys a most respectable situation in the very useful Police office, which owes its institution in a great measure to his suggestions; and that he has had the satisfaction of seeing his two eldest sons obtain a good provision in the East India Service.

We have purposely given this dry enumeration of the leading events in the life of Mr. Harriott, in order to prove to our readers what vast opportunities he has possessed for collecting the most useful, important, and diversified information. When we add that he has not wholly neglected these opportunities; that to an acute and vigilant understanding he unites a restless activity, an undaunted perseverance, great quickness of feeling, and a peculiar readiness to learn; that his minor adventures, his early loves, friendships, and quarrels, are interesting and attractive, while the anecdotes are lively, sensible, and amusing; and that his style, though far from polished, and not always chaste and correct, is nervous and spirited, with many instances of that felicity of expression which can be attained by none but original thinkers;—our readers will not be surprised at our declaring that his work has revived in our mind sensations which have slept almost ever since the happy days in which Robinson Crusoe had the charm of novelty.—Let it not be supposed, from this reference to that popular romance, that we mean to insinuate the least suspicion of Mr. Harriott's veracity: on the contrary, we see no reason for doubting the truth of any of the facts related in these volumes. The incidents of such a life must necessarily be peculiar and extraordinary: but we meet with no inconsistent or incredible stories; while we discover throughout the narrative an air of probability, to which indeed we perhaps might not pay much respect after the successful deceptions practised by De Foe, if the author's manner did not at the same time convince us that his rectitude of principle and moral pride are wholly incompatible with the deliberate fabrication of falsehoods. We were sorry, therefore, to see him give a kind of handle to unfounded incredulity by some expressions used in his Introduction, in which he repeats the same story of the flying fish and the chariot wheel, which we extracted at p. 304 of our last volume, in our review of the *Oriental Field Sports*, as an useful hint to readers of foreign travels. It is singular enough that two unconnected authors, who have given the same warning to their sceptical readers, should accidentally confirm

confirm each other's veracity ; for the present writer's account of hunting in India corroborates some of the most peculiar descriptions of it that are furnished by Captain Williamson.

We hope also that, in any future edition of this work, dates will be inserted, and the division of time more accurately marked ; and we think that it will be more satisfactory to write the names of places and persons at full length, except where the feelings of individuals may be wounded or private confidence violated.

Having said so much on the general merits of this production, we have the less room for extracts from it ; and the choice of quotations is perplexing, since we find in it few chapters from which we could not select something that would be entertaining to the generality of readers. The author's tour in America abounds with useful practical information ; he does not disdain to enter into the minutest particulars that may be serviceable to the settler ; and his clear accounts, while they may deter many from a hazardous undertaking, will point out to others the most probable means of pursuing it with success. The unfortunate state of our present relations with America may indeed prevent emigration at this particular moment : but, when amity is restored, and when the increasing burthens of this country suggest the expediency or impose the necessity of transplanting families to the western continent, the work before us may be advantageously consulted.—Before we transcribe any passages on this subject, however, we shall copy two specimens of his adventures in India : the first of which exemplifies his reflecting powers, and the second shews his readiness of invention and dexterity of operation in detecting imposture :

' Extraordinary View of a Thunder-Storm when sitting far above it, with a Description of the Fort where it happened ; its Effects on the Author, and his Observations.

' The singular appearance of a thunder-storm, which I witnessed at Condepillee, deserves a better description than I am capable of giving ; to enable the reader to form a clearer conception, it may be proper to give him some idea of the fort and situation.

' The whole comprehends three forts, one within the other. The pettah, or village, is to the eastward on the outside the fort, at the foot of the hills, and opening on the plains of Golconda. The wall of the outer fort, (as it is called) is some miles in extent, encompassing several hills ; the wall itself is built not much unlike some of the stone fences to be seen in various parts of England, nor is it stronger. The middle fort is so high up the hills as to make the greater part of it inaccessible, by perpendicular rocks.—The passage up from the lower fort is formed by regularly-cut stone steps, several feet wide, and winding in its ascent up the valley. I have run up it in twenty minutes,

minutes, but it required three quarters of an hour to walk it leisurely.

‘ Little or nothing had been done, when I was there, to strengthen it, though very capable of improvement. The inner fort was an exceeding high pinnacle of a rock, completely inaccessible every way except by a narrow path up stone steps, so high from one to the other and insecure withal, as to require both hands and feet to climb up in safety. A large stone tank, or reservoir, hollowed out of the solid rock, was always full of water, and must have been supplied by the clouds, which often encompassed and crowned its head. Not being commanded by any other height, a few men could defend it against any force, so long as they had provision.

‘ In hot weather we frequently ascended to the middle fort, on account of the pleasant temperature of the air; the difference being such, that while people below would be gasping for breath, from the heat, we could with pleasant ease move about, or even play at trap-ball, in this higher fort.

‘ I had one afternoon climbed up to the Devil's Arse a-Peak *, to enjoy the extensive prospect and breathe a cooler air, when the clouds began to gather along the eastern side of the mountain, about midway between me and the plain, or lower fort, where we resided. It was not long before the lightning and thunder produced a tremendous, but most awfully grand, effect from the clouds below me. The lower fort, the pectah, and plains, were deluged with rain, while I sat on high, with a serene, beautiful, clear, sky over my head, calmly looking down, delighted with the playful appearance of the lightning, as it darted in beautiful zig zags from the clouds at my feet, while the loud peals of thunder reverberated along the different valleys between the mountains.

‘ I have seen many grand sights, but never any thing comparable to the superlatively-glorious view that was then presented. I fancied myself like Jupiter, on Mount Olympus, when hurling his thunderbolts, &c. Nay, more, my heart bounded in ecstasy and grateful adoration to the Deity, who thus afforded me a kind of foretaste of supreme pleasure and happiness, arising from inward sensation more than from the grand outward spectacle I have been witness to, and which, prior to that moment, I could form no conception of enjoying. I felt as if ethereal rather than mortal; and it was not until long after the storm below had been dispersed, and the shades of evening were approaching, that I could persuade myself to leave the spot where I had experienced such exquisite mental felicity.

‘ Possibly there are many who may smile at my declaring, that, often since, when I have been in critical situations whether I should live or die, the recollection of this glimmering view of what a refined mind is capable of enjoying, has tended more to divest me of fear concerning death, and encouraged the hope of exchanging this life for a better, than any other circumstance, thing, or knowledge, I have otherwise obtained.’

* * A name given to the upper fort by the English.’

‘ *Bramins* * ; *I perform a Miracle.*

‘ I do not pretend to any learned knowledge or acquaintance with the Gentoo religion, yet I cannot refrain from making one remark : the Gentoos are accused as idolatrous heathen worshippers of images, which from outward appearances they may seem to be ; but, from many inquiries among the Bramins, in whatever part of India I made any stay, it appeared that the various images they carry in procession are only considered as *emblems* of the different attributes of the Deity, and not as deities, or objects of adoration, in themselves.

‘ Of all denominations of men I have seen, I think there are none so chastely correct, in the discharge of religious and moral duties, as the Gentoos. This is pretty obvious on a general view of them : many instances came to my knowledge ; and my faithful Punnapp, who served me from the first week I landed to the last minute of my stay, would have sacrificed his life sooner than have imposed on me himself, or suffered any one, European or native, to impose upon or injure his master in any respect. So far I speak to *his* moral character ; and, being of a high Bramin cast, he would rather have lost his life than his cast, by acting contrary to any religious point of duty. Yet, among the lower casts of these, as well as the lower order of other people, there are those who will attempt to impose and practise on one’s credulity. I will relate an instance that occurs to my memory.

‘ I was travelling with a party of officers and a guard of Sepoys. We stopped to refresh ourselves ; and, among the inhabitants of a village, who came out to view us as objects of curiosity, one fellow was so unusually audacious as to force himself into the tent where we were dining, using strange gestures and making an extravagant noise. Having in vain endeavoured to learn his meaning, we ordered him out ; he refused to go, and we then ordered the palanquin bearers in attendance to force him out. On his being thus removed to a short distance from our tent, we soon heard a confused noise and lamentation, and were informed that this fellow, who pretended to be a devotee, had swooned away from the effect of pollution, in being touched by our palanquin-bearers, who were Parriars †.

‘ We rather laughed at this account : louder lamentations were heard, and word was brought that the man was dead. We went out and found a great many people assembled round the body, lamenting and complaining loudly of the outrage. It became necessary to order our Sepoys under arms, and the servants to be on their guard. We sent for the head men of the village, and the body was thoroughly examined by the natives and pronounced to be dead. There certainly appeared no visible signs of life ; but the trifling injury he could have received by the handling to overcome merely his own resistance, and the absurdity of a man’s dying from the effect of fancied pollution, added to my experience of their powers of deception, perfectly satisfied my mind that this fellow was an impostor.

‘ * Gentoo priests, followers of Bramah, their celebrated founder.’

‘ † Men of the lowest cast.’

‘ Desiring my brother-officers to leave the business to my management, I acquainted the natives that I had an infallible means of knowing whether the man was dead or not ; that, if there was the least spark of life remaining, since the body had received no injury, I could restore him, though the remedy would be exceedingly severe. They wanted to remove him ; but this I would not suffer, well knowing they might make any report they pleased concerning his death and create much trouble.

‘ I laid hold of his hand, and was some time before I could feel a pulse, which completely satisfied me ; but I kept my own counsel. Again the people pressed forward tumultuously, with an apparent design to carry the body away by force ; but, ordering the Sepoys to advance with fixed bayonets, I made them retire to a distance, suffering only the head men to remain. In vain did I endeavour to persuade them that the man counterfeited, until, finding nothing else would do, I assured them I possessed powers they had no conception of, and, without touching the body again, I would convince them of the man being still alive, by drawing a flame from his body, which they should see, and which would continue burning and consuming him unless he arose from the earth. My brother-officers listened with nearly as much attention as the natives.

‘ I sent my Dubash, Punnapa, to enjoin silence to the multitude, as a miracle was going to be performed by a European Bramin, which he assured them I was, (knowing I had officiated as a chaplain).

‘ Ordering my travelling escrutoir to be brought, I placed it near the man’s head, and took from it a wax taper, a small match, and a little bottle ; articles I carried for the convenience of getting a light when wanted : I also took out a bit of sealing-wax, wrapped within a piece of white paper. I then directed all to be silent while the ceremony was performing, under pain of their being struck with death. Having had this explained by Punnapa to the chiefs, and by them again to the people, I was well satisfied the dead man heard and understood the whole, by slight involuntary twitchings I saw in his muscles.

‘ When all was quiet, I began by walking slowly round the extended body four times, laying one of the four articles each time at his feet ; uttering, with a solemn loud voice, the following five Latin words that happened to occur, “ *Omne bene, non sine panâ.* ” I believe that the fall of a pin might have been heard while I was performing this mummary.

‘ Having managed with tolerable seriousness, I took up all the articles, stood accross the man, and, raising both my arms as high as I could reach, called aloud, “ *Si—lence !* ” Then, bending over the body, I held the match in my right hand, the wax taper in my left ; and, drawing the cork from the bottle of phosphorus, just above his navel, at the moment I applied the match to light it, as it were, from his body, I began to sing, “ God save great George, our king.” But, the instant the flame was seen, there was such a yell of “ Ah, paw, swaamee, ah, yaw, swaamee,” as completely drowned all my fine singing. Lighting my taper, I proceeded with my work, by melting the sealing-wax and dropping it hot, close above his navel ; but the

the fellow had not patience to stay for more than two or three good drops of my miraculous wax, before he jumped up and ran away, bellowing and clawing his belly, without stopping to thank me for his cure or answering the calls of others, until he got within the village.

‘ That the fellow had heard and understood what passed, with my declaration that I possessed a power to draw forth a flame from his body, was evident; and I depended on the sudden attack of the burning wax, on so tender a part, heightened by his own imagination, to overthrow all the obstinacy of trick, and produce some such effect as would satisfy he was not dead. What his particular aim was, it might be difficult to make out.’

Mr. Jefferson strongly advised Mr. Harriott to establish himself in Virginia: but the feelings of the free-born Englishman revolted from a situation in which he must unavoidably employ negro-slaves. He therefore travelled from New York, by *coaches*, and such other modes of conveyance as he was able to procure, to the Back-Lands, which were represented as another Canaan, flowing with milk and honey. He was naturally much struck with the multiplicity of taverns, every third house being of that description; and he was still more surprised to observe that almost all the landlords united in themselves the highest civil and military functions. The following portrait is curious:

‘ We stopped at Judge Sterling’s to refresh our horses. Hearing that he was first Judge of the county, I doubted whether it was a tavern, until my fellow-traveller called for cider, which the Judge readily drew for him. His appearance, in point of dress, was so singularly grotesque, in contrast to the dignity of his office, that I could not refrain minuting it down while he was waiting on his customers during the short stay we made. His hair was matted like a mop, and looked as if no comb had entered it for months past; he had on a ragged brown greasy jacket, the sleeves of which appeared to have been torn off; dirty canvas trowsers, no stockings, and very thick shoes tied with leather thongs. In a breast button-hole of his jacket was a short tobacco-pipe, completely japanned with smoke: this last article was a constant appendage to every Dutch settler I met, as well as to Judge Sterling.’

While large districts in these remote parts are neglected or abandoned by the proprietors, they are sometimes settled by an independent roving race, who are known by the name of *Squatters*:

‘ The log-houses with log-fences, in the uncultivated forests, have a singular and grotesque appearance to strangers. These are chiefly built by Squatters, a species of wild settlers, who never inquire of the proprietors of the land, but build their log-house, and take possession of what ground they think proper to clear for the growing a little Indian corn.

corn. These gentry do considerable damage to the forests, by burning the underwood, early in the spring, for the sake of a little grass that shoots up soon after.'

Mr. H. encountered three parties of men, women, and children, emigrating with their household goods, cattle, and implements in husbandry, from the United State, to the British territories in Upper Canada. The resemblance which they bore to the patriarchal families of old, removing from one country to another, was strengthened by hearing them addressed by names nine tenths of which are taken from the Old Testament, such as Reuben, Simeon, Dinah, Leah, &c. His political observations on this fact are intitled to attention.— Mr. H. quitted the Western Country with a full persuasion that no settler can reasonably expect to derive any great advantages from it, for a century or two at least.

On purchasing his farm in Long Island, the author found such difficulty in procuring white servants, that he was obliged to compromise his principles, and purchase negroes. On this subject, he shall speak for himself:

'Convinced I could not get on without purchasing black help, and reduced to the alternative of being a slave to my white servants or having slaves for my servants. I listened to some of the many applications made me from several negroes in the neighbourhood, who wished me to purchase them of their masters, and I bought four. To all of them, I promised freedom in the following manner. I divided the sum I gave for each into so many equal portions; and, opening a regular account, I engaged, at the close of every year, to set off one of these portions until the whole was discharged, and they then became free; provided they behaved well. Any very bad behaviour was to be punished with the mulct of such a part of the yearly portion, according to their demerits in that year; the decisions on which were to be publicly settled and made known to them every year, when assembled together for that purpose: which day I made a gala for them and all whom they chose to invite, nor did my heart ever dilate with much greater satisfaction than on the first of these gala-days, when, with my wife and children, we went among them in the height of their jollity in the evening; and dancing with them a few minutes only, made all completely happy. But I learned that this gave umbrage to some of my neighbours, who were jealous of its making their negroes discontented.'—

'When I got my black help, my white men refused to eat at the same table or same time, if in the same room with my black people, whether free or slaves. They even considered their own equality lessened, by not being permitted to eat at our table. This kind of pretence, set up by European servants, is much more insupportable from them than the native American; with the latter it is natural, and he looks for it without assuming any new consequence. But the European, on whom this assumption is awkwardly grafted, knows

knows not how to make this claim or acquiesce in giving it up, without exhibiting an ignorant, haughty, ferocious, kind of self-consequence, that is truly ridiculous as well as disagreeable. I tried, once or twice, what the effect of example would do. I was felling some large trees, in a wood at some distance from the house, when, having prepared a large meat-pie sufficient for six of us to dine on, and taking two black men, two white men, with my son and myself, we went to work in the forenoon. At twelve o'clock, sweeping the snow away from around one of the butts of the fallen trees, I called them all, saying, jocularly, "Come, boys, as we all work together, let us all eat and drink together." Then, cutting the pie into six equal shares, I handed a piece to each of my whites first, then to my blacks, lastly to my son and myself. But it was difficult to refrain from laughing at the contrast of the black and white countenances, while eating. The latter, surlily looking at each other, twisted their jaws about as if they had no appetite, while the former (after repeated excuses to wait until we had done, which I over-ruled,) sate with their eyes fixed bashfully on the ground, scarcely opening their mouths wide enough to admit their victuals, yet with a secret kind of smile when they leered at each other. In the morning, we had all worked cheerfully alike; but, after this repast, scarcely a word escaped the lips of my white gentlemen, except short answers when I spoke to them: my black mates, on the contrary, were as much on the alert. When returned home, I understood they (the whites) had said, "Mr. . . . might eat with black men if he pleased, but they never would;" and, a few days after, they left me.'

It is to be regretted that Mr. H. quitted his farm before the result of his sensible and humane experiment could be ascertained; though his successor was under articles to continue the agreement with the negroes on the estate.

We must now, though not without reluctance, take leave of Mr. Harriott; to whom we are much indebted for the entertainment with which his history has supplied us. We sincerely hope that the evening of his eventful day may be prolonged in comfortable repose, cheered by the attentions and enlivened by the prosperity of a virtuous and affectionate family.

ART. VI. *Edwy and Elgiva, and Sir Everard*; two Tales, by the Rev. Robert Bland. 12mo. pp. 187. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

THE poetry of our country has been, for some time past, in danger of being divided between the opposite extremes of licentious irregularity and excessive polish. Some wild ballads from the German school, full of gloomy scenes, furious passions, and extravagant machinery, have absorbed the

the astonished faculties of one description of readers; while another has derived a calm and merely intellectual pleasure from a contemplation of detached pictures exquisitely drawn; indeed, delicately coloured, and highly finished, but so devoid of general animation as to have rather deserved the character of common-place ideas arranged ready for use under particular heads, than the praise of exciting a lively and continued interest as poetical compositions. We do not here question the talents of those who have devoted themselves to these separate styles; on the contrary, we have been always willing to bear ample testimony to their respective merits, when their works have fallen under our cognizance: but we wish to observe that the continual indulgence of these peculiar characteristics has endangered the permanent interests of genuine poetry, and has sometimes alarmed us with the apprehension that the strains of Dryden and Pope would be heard no more.

Mr. Bland's publication, however, affords one agreeable proof that a period so fatal to good taste and literature is not yet arrived. In two tales, he has embellished the charms of incident, character, description, and sentiment, with graceful diction, and harmonious versification. We do not often witness lines so uniformly smooth, joined with such diversity of cadence; and it is equally rare to meet with a style of such labored elegance, so easy in its general effect, and so free from vicious affectation.

The first tale is judiciously founded on that portion of our history, which is so far familiar to all readers as to awaken a ready attention, and at the same time sufficiently remote and obscure to allow of deviations from the received opinion without shocking our established notions of important historical truth. It is opened by these lines:

‘ Loud was the mirth, and sweet the minstrel’s lay
In hall and bower on Edwy’s bridal day:
High thanes and princes throng’d the board around,
And sovereign beauty the rich banquet crown’d.
‘ From Egil’s harp the song of joy began,
Now old, but memory warm’d the tuneful man;
Young on Northumbria’s field he pour’d the strains:
That thrill’d the Pagan Anlaff and his Danes,
Who rose in arms against the English line,
With Ewen leagu’d and Scottish Constantine:
At length from camps retiring in his age,
Tho’ now no more he wak’d the battle’s rage,
He knew the peaceful banquet to prolong,
Skill’d in the many mysteries of song.’

So.

So fair a dawn of promise, as is displayed in his epithalamium, was however overcast in a moment by the violence and intrigues of the powerful priests, Odo, and Dunstan. At the command of the former, Elgiva is forcibly borne away to Ireland; and the arm of Edwy is palsied by a dark and mysterious threat, that any attempt to pursue or avenge her shall be followed by her instant death. In this hour of trial, his fears as a lover are absorbed in his sense of duty as a king: but, while he leads his army to subdue the rebellious Mercians, who were leagued against him with his Northern enemies, a gallant knight of his court resolves to hazard every thing for the rescue of his queen.

‘ The pride of knights brave Clarenbert was known;
And all in grace and knightly feats outshone,
Yet curs’d by fortune, tho’ enrich’d with power,
The child of Sorrow from his natal hour:
For with the very pangs that gave him breath,
His gentle mother clos’d her eyes in death.
His sire o’er distant regions bent to roam
From the blank sadness of a widowed home,
Sought foreign wars, and fell among the slain,
When German Otho fought in fair Lorrain.
Two sisters, trusted to a guardian’s hands,
Who meanly thirsted for their gold and lands,
In budding charms when high their pulses beat
With youthful rapture, and the world was sweet;
By hellish arts subdu’d, were doom’d to shrowd
Their blooming beauties from th’ admiring croud;
With cloister’d nuns to sadden out their years
In barren durance and reluctant tears.
Gay was his heart: but memory of his birth
Would oft with sorrow cloud his passing mirth,
He mourn’d a friendless state; and often wept
On the cold marble where his mother slept,
Wish’d from the sire on whom he hardly smil’d
Unconscious yet, to hear the name of child;
Oft solitary pac’d, in dead of night,
Around the walls of sainted Æthelbright,
Where lost for ever in their age’s bloom,
Immur’d, and buried living in their tomb,
A guardian’s curse th’ unhappy maids deplore;
Forbad to hear or greet their brother more.
Hence, tho’ in outward show devoid of care,
Pride of the brave, and pleasing to the fair,
Tho’ foremost in the brilliant court he shone,
Yet, loathing life, he lov’d to muse alone;
And, looking to the void futurity,
Resolv’d to dare some glorious deed, and die.

' Bound to his prince by loyalty and blood,
 The first of champions in his cause he stood,
 Not the gay comrade of his happier hour
 To swell his train and idolize his power,
 But most a friend, when other friends withdrew,
 E'en in the winter of his fortunes true.
 Elgiva's youth by tyranny oppress'd
 First warm'd with enterprise his vacant breast ;
 And if his death the destinies decreed,
 On beauty's side 'twere happiness to bleed.
 Hence to his lord he swore by knighthood's laws
 To free the fair, or perish in her cause.'

The war is terminated by a bold attack on the Pagans, when assembled to celebrate the rites of their bloody superstition. Edwy, still deterred from all attempts to save Elgiva by the tremendous denunciation before mentioned, (though perhaps this motive is scarcely made sufficiently prominent,)

' Strives to lose his discontent
 In vigorous toil and manly hardiment,'

in the various exercises of the chace, and the sports of mimic war. Returning one day through the wood of Andereda, or the New Forest, he is betrayed, by an accidental pursuit of robbers, into a cavern, where he encounters his long lost ' Elgiva fainting in a youth's disguise.' After the first effusions of surprise and joy, she relates the history of her confinement, and her escape, which was purchased by the death of her bold champion and redeemer, Clarenbert. Edwy's pleasure at this unexpected meeting is damped by the sad recital; and his lamentation over his friend is truly pathetic. He is still fearful of acknowledging his consort in the face of the world; since, though Odo was no more, Dunstan was equally powerful, bigotted, and relentless. He leaves her, therefore, when it is necessary for him to appear in his palace, under the protection of the two Earls, who happened to attend him on the expedition. Athelard was brave and loyal: but Sigbert, in revenge for some supposed injuries, betrayed his trust to the pontiff, whose mysterious myrmidons were found haunting the cavern by Edwy on his return, having first compelled the unfortunate Elgiva to swallow poison. The agonies of his despair are deeply tragic; and the following mournful description closes the poem:

' A deadly paleness shrouded o'er her charms,
 She grasp'd his hand, and languish'd in his arms,
 Yet soothed on him her closing sight to rest,
 And sigh her gentle soul into his breast.

Scarce

Scarce* yet slow-pacing thro' her livid veins
 A ruddy drop the warmth of life retains ;
 Scarce* fetter'd at the door that led to peace
 The spirit stood, and waited her release ;
 Scarce* at the key the guardian pulses still
 With dull and lazy beat their charge fulfil ;
 Her eye, that fail'd her with her failing breath,
 A languid pleasure look'd, and closed in death.'—

'Sir Everard' is a purely fictitious, but a very well told and striking fable. He is described as living on a lone and barren island with two sons, with whom he shares the labors of hunting and fishing, and whose minds he studiously forms to all that is good and honorable. We are here forcibly reminded of Belarius and his two pupils, in *Cymbeline* ; and of the fine passage which ascribes their elevation of soul to their royal extraction :

"How hard it is to hide the sparks of Nature !
 These boys know little they are sons to th' king—
 They think they're mine : and, though trained up thus meanly
 I' th' cave, whereto they bow, their thoughts do hit
 The roofs of palaces ; and nature prompts them,
 In simple and low things, to prince it, much
 Beyond the trick of others," &c.

Sir Everard thus describes the effect of his instructions on his sons :

'Yet tho' of men unseen ye here might dwell,
 Your natures hiding in this narrow cell,
 I train'd ye up as sprung of noble blood,
 And proudly bent your willing minds to good ;
 To high-born honour nursed your early prime,
 That still thro' every chance, in every clime,
 Long as the streams flow downwards from their source,
 Or flames the sun in his eternal course,
 In crowds, in solitude, or bond, or free,
 Has been the same, and ne'er shall cease to be.'

The history of this insulated family was long concealed from the ardent curiosity of the youths ; till at length a supernatural trance, which lasted all night, and was six times repeated, dissolved the mystery, and allowed the father to relate the story of his life. A Neapolitan lord, he had fought for France at Créci, and was taken prisoner by the English, among whom he passed his captivity with great enjoyment, and united himself in wedlock to a daughter of the Earl of Devonshire. His younger brother 'stole on his secure hour,' attacked him with a piratical force, tore his wife from his

* This corrupt use of the adjective for the adverb is becoming much too prevalent both in prose and rhyme.

embraces, possessed himself of all his lands, and sent him to the hopeless exile of the desert island, with his two sons and a daughter, the latter of whom soon fell a victim to the hardships of the climate.—During the trance above described, the embodied spirit of Sir Everard had visited his ravished patrimony, and terrified the cruel usurper of it, whose awakened conscience could no longer endure to reap the fruits of a crime so dreadfully avenged. Driven by remorse and despair, he flies the scene of his wickedness, and can find no repose till he re-instates his brother in the possession of his rights, restores his wife, whom he had held in confinement, and takes up the wretched abode, which is now abandoned by Sir Everard; there to expiate his guilt, by a voluntary submission to the same miseries which he had inflicted on his brother.

The apparition of the living soul, as described in this poem, differs from the Scottish “Wraith,” not only in the object for which it is presented, but in a still more striking respect,—we mean the *consciousness* that accompanies it during the supernatural visit :

‘ Full in my sight the damn’d usurper stood,
Then *frighted* had retired within the wood,
But that my potent presence seem’d to root,
With unresisted force, his hastening foot.
Wan was his face, and hollow sunk his eye,
As though he pined amid satiety.
No word I spoke, but all his memory fill’d
With bitterness, and every limb with horror thrill’d.

“ Or when at night he courted sweet repose,
In likeness of my former self I rose
Joyous in youth, as when in happier days
Charm’d with gay life, athirst for idle praise,
Ere by his cursed wiles deprived of rest,
I thought it one to live and to be blest.

“ Or on the banquet hour obscure I stole,
Unbidden guest, and harrow’d up his soul;
Pale, sad, and viewless to the crowd beside,
I probed his bosom, and rebuked his pride,
Temper’d the lively juice with dull alloy,
And breathed of sadness in the lyre of joy;
Then hasten’d on—Obedient to my hand
The doors flew open at their lord’s command.
In a dark cell immured I saw, and faint
With watchful grief, my heart’s enshrined saint,
And thus consoled her:—“ Rest thee, Geraldine!
I was thy lord, again thou shalt be mine.
Fear not, sweet soul;—for, tho’ by night I rise,
I bode no evil but to guilty eyes;
Tho’ my foul kinsman, who our peace betray’d,
Starts from his conscience bodied in my shade,

To thee I come but to assuage thy fears,
 To calm thy sorrows, and to dry thy tears,
 And in my coming bring thee tokens sweet,
 Full of bright promise that we soon shall meet.
 On Thule's shore, where summers never bloom,
 My dwelling is—and tho' upon the tomb
 Of dear Estrella, dead in infancy,
 I daily sit, and muse on her and thee,
 Yet our two sons the season's difference brave
 To please our age, and mourn us in the grave."

We transcribe also the corresponding part in the speech of the brother :

' Six times on me thy lonely image rose,
 Nor day imparted joy, nor night repose ;
 Six times my sword lay pow'rless at my feet,
 Nor tow'r, nor grove, secured me a retreat
 From those dire visits, and in vain I try
 To shun in crowds thy curst society.
 For sense was lodg'd within the very walls,
 And sounds unbidden murmur'd thro' the halls ;
 The very trees their rightful lord express,
 And brooks had tongues to tell my guiltiness.
 E'en holy pray'er, to which the suffering fly
 And find a respite from their misery,
 Nor hope, nor balm, afforded to my woes—
 But from the shrines uncomforted I rose,
 And from the chapel to the banquet pass'd,
 Scared at thy thought, or at thy sight aghast.'

These outlines of the poems are in general filled up with a skilful hand : but, as Mr. B. expresses an intention of continuing his work, and as we have been induced by his promising talents to pay more than common attention to these tales, we must not conclude without pointing out the only considerable fault in them ; and this we regard as the more necessary, since the line of composition, in which he is ambitious of excelling, is that of poetical narrative. The fault to which we allude is an occasional abruptness in the recital, and an ungraceful want of connection in the chain of events. It will be enough to give this hint to the author ; who, on a review of his poem, will find many instances of what we condemn, without our particularising them. The correction of this defect appears to us essential to that degree of success in this species of poetry, to which Mr. Bland's genius should prompt him to aspire.—Some minor objections may also be made to these compositions. On the score of rhyme, for example, a few inaccuracies may be charged on the author. At p. 13. we read,

‘ Their prince’s guilt a suffering people bears,
Aton’d at last but by a nation’s tears ;’

in which couplet, though the orthography of the final words be exact almost to identity, a due pronunciation (according to the *norma loquendi*) gives an inadequate rhyme.—As also in p. 21.

‘ And when with anger he began to strive,
Then first he liv’d, and felt it bliss to live.’

and in other places.

P. 8. ‘ And oft the blushing bride, with trembling haste,
An answering look on ardent Edwy cast.’

P. 62. ‘ And almost weep, to pity half subdued,
Whene’er I turn their savage souls from blood.’

P. 118. ‘ Here round the winding bay the eye surveys
High tow’rs of state and splendid palaces.’

In p. 68. we have so palpable an imitation of Milton, that Mr. B. might almost have distinguished the line with quotation commas :

‘ When morning strew’d the ground with orient pearl.’

It has also occurred to us as remarkable that Mr. Bland should have clothed these tales in heroic verse, in preference to the ballad stanza, which seems always to have been devoted to such compositions as most appropriate by its touching simplicity.

From some of the notes, it may be inferred that we are indebted to the author of the present work for the Translations from the Greek Anthology, to which we endeavoured to render justice, in a late number ; and to which we sincerely hope that he will keep his promise of adding a second volume, consisting of speeches from the tragedians. Those of *Alcestis*, *Electra*, and *Philoctetes*, which are here presented, authorize our expectations of a high degree of poetic merit in the projected publication.

ART. VII. *Archæologia*: or Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity, published by the Society of Antiquaries of London, Vol. XV. 4to. pp. 423. 2l. 2s. Boards. White. 1806.

THOSE individuals, who are bent on the improvement of the mind, will regard no book as dull which communicates knowledge ; and how much soever they may be amused by the elegant details of history, they will not rest satisfied without examining the materials and evidence on which that history rests. The manners, customs, mode of life, and in short the state

state of society, literature, and the arts, among our ancestors, will be more fully and satisfactorily ascertained by attending to those documents and fragments which they have left, than by the most polished modern narratives. In this view, many of the papers which are published in the *Archæologia* are to be regarded as illustrative appendages to our national history, which are worthy of general consultation. The volume before us contains 39 articles, including many curiosities of this kind; which, though we are forced to notice them in a brief manner, are not on the whole unentertaining nor uninteresting.

We are first presented with four communications respecting the family and the times of our Scottish King, James. That which takes the lead is, *A declaration of the diet and particular fare of K. Charles the first, when Duke of York; communicated by Edmund Turnor, Esq. with notes by the late Mr. Brand, Secretary.* It is a MS. on vellum, commencing on the first day of January 1610, under the sign manual of James his father. We give one of the orders: 'for his Grace at Breakefaste . . . Maincheat, 2, Cheate 1, Beere 2 Ga., Mutton 1, Chickens 2, Milke, butter, &c. per diem. 8d.' According to Mr. Brand's explication, 'Maincheat, or Manchet, was white Bread made in rolls, broad in the middle and sharp at the ends. *Manchet* is nothing but a corruption of *Main cheate*, i. e. principal kind of *cheate*, so that *cheate* is the radical word, which we may without any straining derive from *achet**. French i. e. *bread bought or purchased*, in opposition to that of a *coarser* quality made in the house for general use.'

An explanation of the old words *Gallopins*, signifying scullions, *Doulcets*, a species of custard, and *Chewets*, a dish in cookery, is subjoined. The derivation of *Manchet*, in this paper, is more satisfactory than that of Skinner, which Mr. Turnor adduces as an instance to prove that Etymology has not been unaptly styled *Eruditio ad libitum*. Yet, though we may occasionally smile at its vagaries, it is essential to the antiquary, and to all those who wish to affix to words their precise meaning.

An account of the Revenue, the Expences, the Jewels, &c. of Prince Henry, seems rather misplaced, in following that of a younger brother. It is communicated by William Bray, Esq. who, among the papers of Sir Julius Cæsar, discovered some farther and considerable documents on the subject; particularly relative to the confusion, extravagance, and enormous expence which prevailed in the family: which abuses, had his

* See Cotgrave in verbo.

life been protracted, Prince Henry would probably have endeavoured to reform. His revenue is said to be in all 49,315l. 7s. 10½d.; in a former paper, it was stated to be only 19,322l. 7s. 7d. besides woods and parks.

The narrative of Mr. (afterwards Sir Henry) Yelverton, of what passed on his being restored to the King's favour in 1609, whom he had disoblged by his freedom of speech and conduct in parliament, forms indeed a curious paper, presented to the Society by James Cumming, Esq. but from what archives it is drawn, or in whose possession it has been preserved, we are not particularly informed. It is written by Sir Henry himself, who expresses the deepest compunction and distress at having been brought under his Majesty's displeasure. He was, we apprehend, among the number of those who could not approve the high notions which James entertained of the royal prerogative; nor his zealous labours, whatever might at times be his professions, for the attainment of arbitrary power. That monarch's principles and his heart were, too evidently, of a despotic nature; yet we observe not unfrequently something specious and plausible in his speeches. One expression of Yelverton, which is said to have enraged the king, is that 'we should weigh his reasons, as we do his coyne.'—We cannot enter into the details of this copious narrative, the perusal of which will hardly fail of affording amusement and instruction: but we must observe that, as illustrative of character, some parts of the speech of King James are curious: "Think not, (says he,) it was any cause of my dislike of you that you spake your conscience, and used that liberty of opposition I deny to none. For if a King should force to bind all to his opinion, where usage consonant to reason hath given the subject free consent of denial and rejection, it were the part of a fool or a tyrant."

Details respecting the English navy have at different times made no uninteresting part of these volumes. In addition to former memorials, we now find here an *Extract from an original Manuscript of the beginning of the reign of James I.*, communicated by the late Rev. J. Brand. It gives the names of the ships, together with the number of men, and different military furniture: in all, 25 ships of war, forming a striking contrast between the royal navy of England during the reign of James I. and its force in that of George III.

It has been said that our Board of Admiralty are often puzzled to find names for new ships; if this be the case, the list in this paper might afford them a few curious hints. The *Acates*, the *White Bear*, and the *Bull*, were names given to James's ship of war.—It is worthy of notice that the largest vessel
here

here mentioned is the *Triumphe*, of 1000 tons; while the *Hibernia*, launched about two years ago, was stated to measure 2400 tons.—The mode of equipping and fighting king's ships was very different in the time of James from that which now prevails, as will be evident from a glance at the account of the crew and furniture of the *Triumphe*, viz. ; ' 450 mariners, 50 gunners, 250 souldiers ; Furniture, 250 calivers, 50 bowes, 100 arrow-sheffes, 200 pyks, 200 bills, 150 corsletts, 200 murians.'

With this list are united, from the same MS., '*Extracts of the general mustars taken throughout the whole realme of England and Wales.*' The amount, exclusive of a large force placed under different heads, is, ' 295,131 able men, 1,413,105 armed men, and 6,777 high horses '

Pompey's pillar employs the fifth article of this collection. Observations on this subject have not unfrequently engaged the attention both of the learned critic and of historical inquirers in general. This paper is principally formed by a letter from Capt. W. M. Leake and Lieut. John Squire of the Royal Engineers, to Matthew Raine, D.D., which, with their consent, has been communicated to the Society. It is honourable to these young gentlemen, and to Lieut. Dundas, to have filled up such leisure time as their official duties might allow, by this kind of investigation; and it is to be lamented that they have lost by shipwreck those notes and journals, which might have advanced the discovery of the *Inscription* here communicated, and have produced farther interesting remarks on the pillar and other subjects. Dr. Raine suggests that the word, in which all the letters excepting the first two (Πο) are obliterated, was Πομπήνιος, the name of the Prefect of Egypt, from whom the pillar derived its appellation, and not from Pompey the Great, and who dedicated it to the Emperor Diocletian.

— If this account of the inscription be accurate, and conjecture and bold fancy have not erroneously helped out the eye, we are led to the æra of the erection of this column, viz. to the reign of Diocletian : but Dr. Raine's conjecture of Πομπήνιος, which best agrees with the number of deficient letters, and with the usual denomination of the Pillar, differs from that of Πορτίος, suggested by Mr. Hayter, in the first account of the decyphering of these words, as printed in Capt. Walsh's *Journal of the Egyptian campaign*. (See Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 135.) Capt. L. and Mr. S. do not attempt to supply the illegible letters.

An Account of the visit of Henry VI. to the Abbey of Bury St. Edmund, communicated by Craven Ord, Esq. is chiefly an extract in the Latin language from an old MS. The King appears to have made this excursion very early, viz. ; about the 12th year of his age and of his reign.

We

We now return to the days of James I.; and it will undoubtedly amuse some readers to peruse the account here given, from a MS. presented by Sir Joseph Banks, of the nobility of that time, the offices and fees of the king's household, ministers of law, keepers and officers of castles, houses, and parks, with a great variety of other particulars.

Account of an Abbey of Nuns formerly situated in the Street now called the Minories, in the County of Middlesex and Liberty of the Tower of London, by Henry Fly, D.D. This was a very antient foundation: the nuns had the appellation of *Sorores Minores*, in token of humility; and from this circumstance that part of our metropolis derives its name.

The antient rolls of Papyrus, with the method employed to unroll them, form a subject which may be thought to admit of much greater detail than is found in the sensible and well-written letter of the Hon. Henry Grey Bennet. The inside coating of the plant called *Papyrus* appears to have constituted these Rolls; and a Sicilian, near Syracuse, is said to have established a small manufactory of the article, but rather 'to gratify the wishes of the curious than to reap any immediate profit.' Concerning the discoveries at Herculaneum, we are here informed that about fifteen men are at work, each of them occupied at a MS.; and though little has hitherto been accomplished, yet, as they now become more expert, something more important may be anticipated. A plate is here given, affording a view of the machine which is used in this operation.

Many years have elapsed since we have heard of the literary treasure found at Herculaneum; and high expectations were formed of the discoveries which would probably result. We hoped that the works of Livy and other antient authors, which have descended to us in a mutilated state, would have been rendered perfect: but, though several MSS. have been unrolled, literature seems to receive no accession to its stores.

Celts, pieces of copper swords, and heavy pieces of fine copper, evidently, it is said, brought for fusion, and discovered by a farmer in the parish of Lanant, Cornwall, have led to the conclusion that this place originally possessed a military foundery: small and thin bars of gold, but none larger than a straw, were also found with them. The Rev. Malachy Hitchins writes an account of these and of some others of a like kind, together with spear-heads, &c. discovered in his own parish of St. Hilary.—As to *Celts*, it seems very uncertain what was their proper and immediate use.

Many pages of the volumes of this Society have been devoted to the discussion of the *Tumuli* or barrows scattered in all

parts of this country, even till the reader is almost tired of perusing repetitions which contribute so little to any valuable purpose. Mr. William Cunnington of Heytesbury, although apparently convinced of this fact, has with great attention examined many of these *tumuli*, which are numerous in the county of Wilts; and he furnishes their history in three letters to Mr. Lambert. Besides human bones or skeletons, a great number of instruments of bone, stone, and flint, presented themselves to view; together with a ring of a black substance, used no doubt as an amulet, and other materials, which we cannot enumerate. One of those which are here particularly described is concluded to have been an early Celtic sepulchre: another, from a number of glass and amber beads, is conjectured to have been erected over the remains of some illustrious female; and a third, from the gold, amber, and valuable ornaments which appeared, is supposed to have been 'the sepulchre of some great chief; in all probability a chief of the Celtic Britons.'—Six plates illustrate this paper.

Copy of the original death-warrant of Humphrey Littleton, communicated by T. R. Nash, D.D.—This paper was found at the house of Mr. Bromley, Aberley-lodge, in the county of Worcester; and great commendation is bestowed on the engraver for the accuracy of his copy. Humphrey Littleton was 'condemned for relieving, and harbouring of the traitors, Robert Winter and Stephen Littleton, contrary to the proclamations made in that behalfe;' and it appears that they were concerned in what is termed the Powder-plot. We find here a fac simile of the signatures of several of the privy council, commissioners for the trial of the conspirators; and Dr. Nash presents us with some short and amusing remarks concerning these commissioners.—Of the Chancellor, Sir Thomas Egerton, Lord Ellesmere, we are told,—'He was a man of uncommon gravity, so that he was seldom seen to smile, and of that venerable countenance that many went to the court of chancery to see him; happy, says Fuller, were they who had no other business there.' Of Sackville, Earl of Dorset, we read that 'he may be ranked with the first men of the age in his literary and political character: early in life he was extravagant, and greatly lessened his fortune. The indignity of being kept in waiting by a person of whom he went to borrow money, made so deep an impression on him, that he resolved from that moment to be an œconomist; and managed thenceforth his own property so well, that he was thought a proper person to succeed Lord Burleigh as High-treasurer.' It does not appear that Dr. Nash has any doubt concerning the reality of the popish conspiracy: nevertheless, while we admit that the ac-
count

count itself is interesting, though somewhat confused, and a little inconsistent when the writer speaks concerning the Jesuits, we must add that infidels on the subject of the Popish plot still exist.

An Account of the Italian game of cards called Minchiate is presented by Robert Smith, Esq. It is a subject of curiosity and entertainment, but does not admit of any particular description from us.

We must not, however, thus slightly pass over the paper which follows, containing an *Account of the Ruins of Carthage and of Udena in Barbary*, by John Jackson, Esq. since this memoir is highly curious and amusing. A commercial nation, as we are, cannot without considerable interest reflect on the fate of a people who were formerly as much celebrated for commerce as we can be at present; whose opulence was the admiration of the world, and the object at once of the envy and the cupidity of the Romans. We cannot convey by description an adequate idea of aqueducts, arches, buildings, chambers, cements, variegated marbles, and Mosaic works: but from the vestiges of Carthage which still remain, we may infer its antient magnificence, and the riches which at the period of its grandeur it acquired from trade. Englishmen have not taken more pains to supply their metropolis with water, than were manifested by the inhabitants of Carthage in order to procure the same necessary element; since we may yet discern the remains of an aqueduct above seventy miles in length, by means of which the Carthaginians conducted a stream of water through mountains and over valleys.—Mr. Jackson notices the site of antient Carthage as a most excellent situation for commerce, and remarks that no part of the world could afford better accommodation for shipping.—The remains, which form the subject of this paper, are situated about twelve miles north-west of Tunis, and do not for the most part present themselves to the eye of the traveller; for the plough now passes over a great portion of the ruins of Carthage, and, says Mr. J., ‘I have seen a very abundant crop of wheat, under which were many handsome apartments in a very perfect state.’

Udena, which stands about twenty miles south from Tunis, must have been a city of some consequence, though it is not mentioned by Leo, Shaw, nor any other traveller; for besides large marble columns, &c., it exhibits the remains of a noble amphitheatre, about 200 yards in circumference.

Extracts from a MS. Book of Accounts, entitled “Le Livre des Accouts pour Chevalier Jean Francklyn en son Maison au Welsden,” communicated by Sir John Charden Musgrave, Bart.
Sir

Sir John Franklyn, knight, appears to have been an excellent and amiable man, if we may judge from his epitaph in Wilsden church, Middlesex, prettily composed by his widow, and bearing the stamp of honour and of truth. The extract here given is from ‘A Book of perticuler layings out for my Mr. from the 3d of Sept^r. Anno Domini, 1624.’ It shews the difference of prices in that not very distant period and the present; beginning with ‘a quart of Canary Sacke, 1s., and a pint of white wine, 3d.’—Again,—‘Paid to Joyce for her halfe yeares wages, 13s. 4d.—Quart of epecrist (hippocras or spiced wine) 1s. 6d.—a quart of wine 8d.’: but it seems a high charge when we read, ‘for a pare of red silke stockings, 1l. 10s., and for a pare of worsted stockings, 8s.’

Taylor Combe, Esq. communicates the *Copy of an Indenture, made in 1469, between King Edward IV. and William Lord Hastings, Master of the Mint, respecting the regulation of the Coinage in the Tower of London.* The original is in the possession of Mr. Combe.—It is said to be, and, we think, very justly, a fine specimen of the language and orthography of the time in which it was drawn; and also to contain much information respecting the coinage and management of the mint at that period. To particularize its merits, however, must be left to each reader’s own observation.

The Rev. Henry Beeke, D.D. has employed great attention in his remarks *on the ancient Inhabitants, Roman stations, and Roman roads, in and near Berkshire.* He observes that the *Bibroci* in England had for their capital *Bibracte*, so named from the city of *Bibrax* near Rheims, mentioned by Cæsar in the 2d book of his Commentaries; and vestiges of these names may be found in those of *Bray*, *Bray-wick*, *Bracknell*, &c.—In another part of the disquisition, Dr. B. says, ‘I have sometimes thought that the names of East and West Shireborne, a few miles to the south of Silchester, indicate that the hundred of Holdshot, including that (*very ancient*) city, was once reputed a part of Berkshire instead of Hampshire, and that also these names indicate the ancient boundaries between the *Belgæ* and the *Segontiaci*.’ The latter of these are supposed to have lived in and near *Vindomis*, now Silchester, between *Venta Belgarum* or Winchester, and *Caleva*, the capital of the *Attribates*. This *Caleva* appears to have been in the direct road from London to Bath, and according to calculations of distance must have been in or near *Reading*, or more antiently *Redinges*, a Saxon word, *Reed ings* or meadows: now it is observed that ‘the manor of *Coley* is on the west of Reading, and includes a part of that town; we may therefore conclude that this considerable manor derives its name from *Caleva*.’

Remarks

Remarks on the different kinds of Trial by Ordeal, which formerly prevailed in England, by Robert Studley Vidal, Esq. This letter contains merely a correction of inaccuracies in the accounts given of the subject by different writers; as for instance, Sir W. Blackstone, who is mentioned with great respect, has described one kind of fire ordeal as ‘performed by taking up in the hand a piece of red-hot iron of one, two, or three pounds weight;’ whereas it is here said that the culprit was to receive it in his hand*; and respecting the weight, it was either of one or of three pounds†, according to the offence.

Mr. Vidal, also, in another letter prosecutes ‘an Inquiry concerning the Site of Kenwith, or Kenwic, castle in Devonshire.’ Respect and honour are attached, in an Englishman’s memory, to this fortress, if he be acquainted with its history. About the year 878, the ferocious Danes so greatly molested and ravaged several parts of the kingdom that they seemed almost completely victorious. The Earl of Devon, in this extremity, is said to have retired with a small band of brave men into this castle, which the desperate invaders soon besieged: the Earl, finding it impossible to defend the place, prevailed on his companions to make a bold sally; the attempt succeeded: the Danes were vanquished; their principal leader was killed; their consecrated standard, in which they reposed great confidence, was taken; and the immortal Alfred, after a concealment of six months, was by these means brought forth from his hiding-place to command his army and conduct the government.—It will be truly remarkable, if, after Camden had considered every vestige of this renowned fortress as obliterated in his day, and Baxter had corroborated the account, the spot should now be discovered. Mr. Vidal writes with a laudable diffidence, which lays no claim to decision: yet he apprehends that the search has not been wholly without success; and he offers probable reasons to support such a belief. He has manifested great diligence, and furnishes an agreeable account of his labours and inquiries.

Whatever evils arise from the inconsiderate and reprehensible destruction of trees and woods in this kingdom, it is

* Possibly, antient accounts might mean nothing more than that the offender should hold in his hand a piece of red-hot iron; and readers in this, as in other instances, mistake the writer’s intention, who might have had no reference to the manner in which it was deposited.

† In allusion to which, the trial was denominated either *simplex* or *triplex*.

surely a great blessing to be relieved from the extreme rigour and severity of the forest laws, which in antient times persecuted and oppressed the subject. To persons who had experienced their harassing effects, even in their lower degrees, the value and importance of any secure protection or immunity, which in such cases might be granted, must be great. Philip Henry Leathes, Esq. here presents the *Copy of an original Charter of Exemption from the Forest-laws, granted by King Henry 3d to Stephen de Segrave*. This Stephen, says Camden, "reached the summit of his ambition with difficulty, supported himself there with much trouble, and met with a sudden fall." History also informs us that 'he managed all the affairs of the nation as he pleased,' but that 'at length he quite lost the king's favour, and lay concealed 'till his death in a monastery.'—The charter itself, of which this is a transcript, was purchased out of the collection of the late Sir Charles Frederick. It is written in the Latin language, and is short.—The explication of the terms used, with a relation of the offices, customs, &c. respecting forest-law, furnish an informing and not unpleasant detail, and are creditable to the researches and attention of the writer.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VIII. *Modern Geography.* A Description of the Empires, Kingdoms, States, and Colonies; with the Oceans, Seas, and Isles; in all Parts of the World: including the most recent Discoveries, and political Alterations. Digested on a new Plan. By John Pinkerton. The Astronomical Introduction by the Rev. S. Vince, A.M. F.R.S., and Plumian Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy in the University of Cambridge. With numerous Maps, revised by the Author. To the Whole are added a Catalogue of the best Maps, and Books of Travels and Voyages, in all Languages; and an ample Index. A new Edition, greatly enlarged. 4to. 3 Vols. 6l. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

NEVER was a book introduced to the public with a prouder boast from its author than that which we here announce. "Shut up in measureless content," Mr. Pinkerton, in his preface and introduction, displays the high satisfaction with which he contemplates his labours; and in his Memoir on the progress of Geography, he apprizes the reader not only that his friends have chosen to term him the English Strabo, but that, if he may trust many literary journals and letters from distinguished persons of various countries, he has remarkably succeeded in the present undertaking. As Mr. P. stands on such
very

very good terms with himself, it may appear ill natured to attempt to disturb them; yet, as our duty is not to compliment but to examine, he must not be angry if his merits do not weigh quite so heavily in our scales as in his own. We are glad to receive from him a work which is in some measure calculated to remove from our country the opprobrium under which it has long laboured, on account of the glaring errors and deficiencies which disgrace our books of general Geography; and we admit that he has presented us with a production which we need not be ashamed to own as of British growth, which is not a mere bookseller's job, but is the fruit of the persevering study of a man of letters, and has been conducted on the principles and for the advancement of science. Yet we cannot crown this eulogy by assigning to him that perfection, nor even that near approach to perfection, which he seems in his own opinion to have attained.

To what are commonly termed the *four quarters* of the globe, Mr. Pinkerton has added *Australasia*, or South Asia, comprising New Holland;* which, as he informs us, men of science begin to call Notasia, (would not the equivoque be avoided by calling it *Novasia*?) for which we search in vain in the common maps of Asia; and *Polynesia*, (from *πολυς* many and *νῆσος* island,) including the numerous clusters of islands scattered in the Great or Pacific ocean, which separates the continents of Asia and America. Thus, in modern Geography, the globe is separated into *six quarters* or grand divisions, four terrene and two maritime; and since no new discoveries can be made to affect these grand arrangements, the author may be justified in considering them as fixed: but, though they may be judicious, the term *six quarters* will seem incorrect to an English ear; and we are told that the word *quarter*, as applied to these primary divisions of our globe, is growing out of use.

Maps and charts being allowed by Mr. P. to rank among the chief objects of Geography, we must express our surprise that, in his *celebrated* work, these essential appendages to a complete geographical system have been given in so diminutive a size;—in a size too small for any real use, and calculated only for very young eyes. A map of Europe on a quarto page is ludicrously minute, and, unless a magnifying glass be at hand, cannot be consulted by ordinary optics. The mode, moreover, in which the sea is represented, though highly commended by Mr. P. as a wonderful improvement, we cannot praise; since it not only gives a heavy and sombre appearance,

* See p. 238 of this Review.

but, as he says some Frenchmen have remarked, the names of islands are scarcely legible in the black strokes. A work of this magnitude and price ought to be complete in itself, independently of the superb Atlas which Mr. P. has subsequently announced.—We are sorry that the example of this Geographer's small plates with black seas has been followed in the New Cyclopedia, which is a national work, and the embellishments of which in other instances are respectable. The French mode of engraving plates is preferable to this boasted discovery, which we trust that Mr. P. will not introduce into his forthcoming splendid Atlas.

The original edition of this performance comprised only two volumes, the first of which was appropriated to Europe, containing 654 pages besides the preface, introduction, and appendix; and the second being devoted to Asia, America, and Africa, consisting of 777 pages, together with an appendix, catalogue of maps and books, and an index *. This new impression is more than one half larger than the first, making three volumes; the first allotted to Europe, and containing 930 pages, including a preface, an advertisement, a memoir on geography, an introduction to astronomy, a dissertation on the origin of astronomy and geography, the projection of maps, and an appendix; the second relating to Asia, consisting of 820 pages exclusive of a memoir on discoveries in Asia, of 52; and the third, to America and Africa, containing 1006 pages, including an appendix, a catalogue of maps and books of voyages and travels, and an index.

In the advertisement, Mr. Pinkerton thus assigns his reasons for so great an enlargement of the work:

‘ At length the author has been enabled to complete his favourite plan, of presenting to the public a system of modern geography, duly proportioned in all its parts, and such as to offer harmony and uniformity in its various divisions and arrangements. For in the first edition, restricted to two volumes, a great portion of Asia, and the whole of America and Africa, had been necessarily treated with such brevity, that there was no space even for the most important and interesting geographical information. The striking brevity and deficiency of the latter half of the second volume were perceived abroad as well as at home; and the translators laboured by long notes, to supply what the author knew, from experience, repeated reflection, and the most sedulous examination of the subject, could only be remedied by enlarging the arrangement. In a general system of geography, intended for general information, it is indispensable that there be a harmony of the parts; and the author must be an impartial cosmo-

* We did not give any account of the first edition; having heard, while examining it, that a second was preparing.

polite, without predilection for particular portions. The account of his own country ought, indeed, to be rather diffuse, not from partial views, or national vanity, but to serve as an introduction to the rest; it being necessary, in the first place, that the reader should be intimately acquainted with his native soil. But in the others a strict and impartial distribution ought to be observed, not only in imitation of the classical models of antiquity, whose examples are the safest to follow, as they have stood the test of so many ages; but from the very nature of the subject, which requires that readers of all countries and pursuits, may find themselves gratified by a due extent of information concerning any country which they may wish to examine.

‘At the same time it needs not be disguised that, when the author composed the first edition of this work, he sometimes laboured under a deficiency of materials, particularly recent Spanish books, of the utmost importance for the exact geography of their extensive colonies, or rather empires, in America; but which, after the most careful researches, could not be found in this country. Zealous to remedy this defect, and at the same time to study with more advantage the present state of geography in France, the only country which can rival England in this department, he went to Paris, where meeting with the most flattering and cordial reception from the most eminent men of science, for which he must be permitted to retain lasting gratitude, he was enabled, not only to procure the Spanish authors wanted, but greatly to increase his fund of materials; and though detained by the well known events of the war much longer than he expected, he cannot deeply regret the occasion, as scarcely a day passed without some addition to his information. Hence this edition, which ought to have appeared more than a twelvemonth ago, will be found to have gained in *perfection* what was lost in delay.’

He also tells us that, ‘among the other striking advantages of this edition, may first be mentioned the ample account of New Spain and of the Spanish vice-royalties in South America, drawn from the most recent materials, and presenting, it is believed, the greatest novelty of important information that ever appeared in any geographical work.’ He observes that, after long reflection and experience, he has found that an exact system of geography, of whatever size, ought to be divided into three parts; one of them allotted to Europe, another to Asia, two thirds of the remaining one to America, and the rest to Africa when fully explored. We must, however, ask, how can he determine *à priori*, before Africa has been completely explored, what portion of a general geographical work ought to be assigned to it when such an event may actually take place? He speaks dogmatically of this ‘harmony of proportions,’ as he is pleased to call it, without sufficient *data* for his determinations.—Supposing this arrangement to be the only one that is eligible and justly proportionate, he says, ‘the reader may hence perceive that it would be

8

impossible

impossible to add another volume to this system of modern geography without destroying the harmony and regularity of the whole edifice.'

Aware that the purchasers of the first edition will probably murmur on finding the compilement now so greatly enlarged, Mr. P. endeavours to convince them and the rest of his readers that, in his long descriptions of the Spanish possessions in America, and in his account of the savages of New Holland, as well as of the manners of the Polynesians or inhabitants of the isles in the Pacific Ocean, all unnecessary prolixity has been carefully avoided :

' In the large and just portions of this new edition, which are dedicated to the vast Spanish possessions in America, the most rich and surprising colonies known to history, it became necessary to give extensive and independent descriptions, as the original works are not only very voluminous, and extremely difficult to be procured, but are wrapt in a language little studied, so that a reference to them for more ample information, frequently admissible in depicting other countries, would here have been nugatory. But even in these lengthened descriptions *any* unnecessary prolixity has been carefully avoided; and it is hoped that no reader will object to the length, which is only caused by the variety and importance of the information, and which, from the confusion of the original materials, it has required the most patient industry to digest and arrange. In some other parts of the work, the descriptions given by voyagers and travellers have been repeated in their own words, not from any momentary *relaxation of indolence*, for it would have been very easy to have thrown them into the historical form, but because the just impressions made by the objects themselves cannot be better represented than in the precise colours of the original painter; not to mention that the uniformity of the geographical style, lamented by Mela, and necessarily occasioned by the recurrence of the same topics, may be greatly relieved by such variations. Descriptions of manners, in particular, are always conveyed with more truth and nature in the words of the original observer; and as this work was charged with some deficiency in that department, by those who did not enter into the spirit of the geographical disquisitions, though more appropriated to the science, several of the extracted parts belong to this division. But however curious and interesting the account of the savages of New Holland, and of the people of Otaheite, the last one of the most remarkable tribes on the globe, while the description of their manners here repeated is, after the account of the Araucans by Molina, one of the most minute and singular, which has ever appeared in any language, yet when more ample materials shall arise, from important discoveries in Australasia and Polynesia, a geographer would abbreviate these articles, and introduce other topics more strictly connected with the science. Meanwhile the account of the manners of the Polynesians will not only gratify the most minute enquirer, but will serve to rectify many errors of Montesquieu, and other eminent writers, with regard to a singular stage of society.'

In his memoir, however, on the recent progress and present state of geography, Mr. Pinkerton seems to be sensible that these very descriptions and accounts are somewhat redundant, and that they may be abridged, or parts of them be altogether omitted, without inconvenience; for, he says, 'he may venture to foresee that, by abridging or withdrawing some particular parts, for example, in the accounts of Polynesia and the West Indies, and sometimes by additional annotations, it may not be necessary, even for a century, to add more than one hundred pages.' All this is certainly the language of a bold and adventurous writer on the subject, who fancies himself possessed of a sort of geographical divination. His production has hitherto been in a state of such rapid progression, that in the course of five years it has increased considerably more than one half: but now it has all at once become stationary, and is to remain so for at least a century! The purchasers of this impression, then, need be under no apprehensions of seeing it enlarged a second time, by the author himself.—He states that the new divisions and boundaries, occasioned by a war of the most eventful description, and revolutions of the most astonishing nature, formed one of his reasons for primarily undertaking the work: but, if this were really a good and sufficient motive, it will operate as strongly to the necessity of a third edition, as it originally did to the compilation of the first:—for, since the present edition, which, he says, ought to have appeared more than twelve months ago, was sent to the press, greater alterations in the boundaries of states and kingdoms, more important changes in territorial rights, and a more numerous creation of sovereignties, have taken place, than were produced by the French revolution and concomitant causes prior to the first publication of the book. The truth, however, is that special geography or chorography, let it be ever so correct, must fluctuate with the limits of kingdoms, states, provinces, &c. and such fluctuation affords no decisive reason for publishing a new system, since if it did there would be no end to such compilations. On the other hand, general geography, as more especially relating to the figure and surface of the earth, composed of mountains, hills, plains, vallies, defiles, &c. &c. when once the component parts are thoroughly explored, described, and delineated, remains unchangeable, except so far as rare and partial alterations may be occasioned in it by earthquakes or other operations of nature; and accounts of the inhabitants of different regions, their manners, customs, modes of worship, pursuits, numbers, revenue, commerce, &c. are more within the province of history than of geography strictly so called.

After

After having spoken highly of Mr. Arrowsmith as a map-maker, Mr. Pinkerton observes that 'at present his map of Scotland, from the original great survey of General Roy, excites the public expectation.' This map, however, when presented to the public, cannot possibly be correct; since that, from which it is chiefly copied, is extremely inaccurate. Mr. P., moreover, does not seem to know that the survey of Scotland was not conducted under the late General Roy, but under General Watson, at the desire of the Duke of Cumberland, after the rebellion in 1745; that General Roy was one of the youngest engineers employed on it; that different districts were allotted to them in each Spring; that, when they assembled in Winter to compare their surveys, and could not bring them sometimes to meet by many miles, much altercation often arose, each regarding his own as correct; and that they found it impracticable to form a whole out of them, without a great deal of management and coaxing. In this manner was the plan of Scotland framed. Little or no attention was paid even to the latitudes of places, and none to their longitudes: indeed, the gentlemen employed had no instruments fit for ascertaining the latter. Scotland, however, does not stand alone in this predicament, since we have scarcely a correct map of any country on the surface of the globe. None can be complete for military purposes, let the superficial admeasurements be ever so accurate, unless they have sections in various directions, shewing the relative heights of ground, or tables of references for the same purpose, because these features cannot be represented with precision by any mode of shading or colouring whatsoever. Military geography may, therefore, be regarded as yet in a great measure in its infancy; and Mr. Pinkerton does not treat either of it or of nautical geography, though they form two of the most essential branches of geographical knowledge. He does not, indeed, appear to have even once thought of them; and even if he had introduced them, and discussed them with ability, all that he could have said respecting them would have been of little avail, on account of his maps being on so small a scale as to be despised by the soldier and the navigator. It is the more surprising that he has paid no attention to these two important branches, since he mentions the beneficial effects that have been felt in France, from the frequent publication of good maps at the *Depot de la Guerre* and the *Depot de la Marine*; in the former of which particularly, he says, the exactness of the topography has afforded great advantage to military operations.

We are unable to discover the propriety of prefixing to this work so long an introduction to astronomy, which is indeed more extensive than some entire treatises on the subject. As to its actual merits, we readily allow that it is ably drawn up, (though it contains little that is new,) being the performance of a person of much respectability and considerable eminence as a mathematician. Mr. Pinkerton is apparently of opinion, that a knowledge of astronomy ought to precede the study of geography; whereas we incline to maintain that a knowledge of the general outlines of what is properly called geography, and of the circles of the sphere, ought to precede the study of astronomy. What connection subsists between geography and the rotation of the sun, of the satellites of the Georgium Sidus, the ring of Saturn, &c. &c. &c.? Such an introduction might with much more propriety be prefixed to a cosmographical work, treating of the solar system and the universe.—We cannot but think that the dissertation on the origin of astronomy and geography, though it be ingenious, might also have been omitted without any detriment to the study of the latter:—but the projection of maps, by M. Lacroix, seems to be naturally introduced, as connected with geographical subjects.

Mr. P. arranges geography under four heads or divisions, viz. historical, political, civil, and natural; which method he acknowledges to have been suggested by the *Essai sur l'Histoire de Géographie*, by Robert de Vaugondy. Under the first, he comprises the Names, Extent, Boundaries, Original Population, Progressive Geography, the Historical Epochs, and Antiquities of Countries. In the second, he speaks of the Religion, the Ecclesiastical Geography, the Government, Laws, Actual Population, Colonies, Army, Navy, Revenues, and the Political Importance and Relations of different Countries, respectively. He makes the third comprehend an account of Manners and Customs, Language, Literature, Education, Universities, Cities and Towns, Edifices, Inland Navigation, Manufactures, and Commerce. The fourth treats of the Climate and Seasons, the Face of each Country, its Soil and Agriculture, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, Forests, Botany, Zoology, Mineralogy, Mineral Waters, and Natural Curiosities.

Now it appears to us that an account of the extent and boundaries of any country is naturally connected with a description of the face of it, or of what Mr. P. calls its physiognomy, and ought to be brought under the same head with it: but not even one hundredth part of this bulky performance is employed on descriptions of the different portions of the surface of this terraqueous globe, which form the most
natural

natural and immediate provinces of geography and hydrography, and are by far the most useful for naval and military purposes. As this is the case, the author ought to have paid particular attention not only to the accuracy but to the size of his maps; which, on the contrary, as we have already observed, are drawn on so diminutive a scale as to be almost useless to sailors and soldiers. He has certainly introduced more ample accounts, from books of travels and voyages, of recent discoveries, than are to be found in any other publication of this kind: but his pages are chiefly occupied with materials that belong rather to history than to geography; and it is much easier to compile a work by means of copious extracts respecting the manners and customs of barbarous tribes, and fanciful dissertations on the origin of nations and their first population, than to delineate correctly the face of any country, with the diversity of ground and positions which it presents, and to ascertain with exactness the situation of places, the course of rivers, &c. &c. Yet without having accomplished these matters, no geographical work can be regarded as of much value, because it cannot contribute to the illustration of history, the operations of war, or the purposes of navigation: geography being to historical narrative, in respect of place, what chronology is in point of time.

Mr. Pinkerton does not seem to have even availed himself of the light thrown on the geography and hydrography of different parts of the earth's surface, by antient writers of truth and accuracy. Who, for instance, from Mr. P.'s lame, vague, and defective account of the Hellespont, the Propontis or Sea of Marmora, the Thracian Bosphorus or Streight of Constantinople, the Pontus or Euxine Sea, the Cimmerian Bosphorus or Streight of Caffa, and the Palus Mæotis or Sea of Azof, can learn any thing respecting the dimensions of those lakes, the lengths or breadths of those streights, their depths of water and currents, or the navigation of them? Any person who reads the description given of them by Polybius, in the fourth book of his history, must allow that historian to be incomparably superior to Mr. Pinkerton both as a geographer and an hydrographer. Mr. P.'s descriptions, which occur under this class, are also frequently incorrect even in cases in which, with proper attention and care, he might have obtained sufficient information to have enabled him to steer clear of the mistakes which he has committed. We shall give a few instances.

In speaking of Cyprus, he asserts, on the authority of Van Egmont, that not one river or stream on the island continues its course in summer: but that it possesses many

ponds, lakes, and fens, which produce a damp and pestiferous air. The great improbability, however, of such a statement would naturally have occurred to him, had he only adverted to the size of the island, and to the circumstance of its being traversed by a chain of Mountains. It is well known that the river of Piscopia, as it is called, not only flows, but drives grist-mills, throughout the year.

Again: the following short and meagre account of our province of New Brunswick, in North America, is almost entirely erroneous:

The antient province of Nova Scotia was granted by James I. to his secretary Sir Wm. Alexander, afterward Earl of Stirling, and the origin of the title of Baronets of Nova Scotia is well known. It was afterward seized by the French, who seem indeed to have been the first possessors, and by whom it was called Acadie: but it was surrendered to England by the treaty of Utrecht 1713. In 1784, it was divided into two provinces, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. In the former there are two considerable bays, and a river of some length, called St. John's; while that of St. Croix divides New Brunswick from the province of Main, belonging to the United States. The river of St. John is navigable for vessels of fifty tons about sixty miles, and for boats about two hundred; the tide flowing about eighty. The fish are salmon, bass, and sturgeon; and the banks, enriched by the annual freshets, are often fertile, level, and covered with large trees. This river affords a common and near route to Quebec. There are many lakes, among which the Grand Lake is 30 miles long, and about nine broad. The great chain of Apalachian mountains passes on the N.W. of this province, probably expiring at the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The capital is Frederick-town on the river St. John, about ninety miles from its estuary. St. Ann's is almost opposite; and there are some other settlements nearer the bay of Fundi, with a fort called Howe. There is a tribe of savages called the Marechites, estimated at 140 fighting men. The chief products are timber and fish.

We speak on authority which we know to be worthy of reliance when we controvert this statement. Vessels of almost any tonnage can go seventy miles up the river St. John, as far as the mouth of the Oromucto, and vessels of upwards of fifty tons can sail eighty-four miles up it, or four miles above Fredericton; but higher no craft larger than log or birch canoes can be taken, even by means of setting-poles, without the use of ropes and a number of men to drag them along, who must for the greatest part of the time be wading in the water. Fredericton is not ninety miles from the estuary of that river, but eighty; the distance having been measured on the ice. St. Ann's or St. Ann's point, instead of being almost opposite to Fredericton, is in fact the same place, and is only the name formerly given to the point of land

land on which Fredericton stands; and the latter is still called St. Ann's by many of the old inhabitants of that province. The Apalachian mountains do not extend near to the gulph of St. Lawrence.

When treating of Halifax in Nova Scotia, Mr. P. makes its population at least three times as great as it actually is. He asserts also that the town is entrenched, with forts of timber: but this is a great mistake, since it has no entrenchment round it. The soil in that province, he adds, is generally thin and light, though fertile, on the banks of the rivers, in grass, hemp, and flax. Grass and flax certainly grow with luxuriance on the banks of its rivers, and on other parts of it: but scarcely any hemp has yet been raised either in Nova Scotia or New Brunswick, though instructions relative to the cultivation of it were sent from this country to the governors of those provinces, who have repeatedly called to that object the attention of their respective houses of assembly. The lands in both, as well as in the two Canadas, are naturally very fit for its growth and culture; and in the latter it is known to have succeeded.

From Pennant's *Arctic Geography*, Mr. Pinkerton asserts that the tides in the Bay of Fundy force themselves into the great creeks with a bore, or head, from fifty to seventy two feet high, and with amazing rapidity. The tides undoubtedly run very rapidly into different creeks and rivers that communicate with that bay, and particularly into the Petcudiack and the Hebert: but, as its navigation is now tolerably familiar to many of our seamen, better information on this subject was unquestionably within the author's reach. The height of the head of water, commonly called the *Bore* by the inhabitants, occasioned by the tides running from this bay into the creeks and rivers with great rapidity, is in fact only from two to four feet. At the head of the bay, near Fort Cumberland, or *Beau Sejour*, the spring tides rise to the height of nearly sixty feet perpendicular, which is attributable to their flowing gradually up an extensive inclined plane. At Bay Verte in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, only twelve miles distant from Fort Cumberland, they do not rise more than from four to six feet: at the mouth of the river St. John, where the city of that name stands, the highest tides do not rise above 28 feet perpendicularly; and the farther they proceed up the Bay of Fundy, the bottom of which is a sort of inclined plane, the higher they naturally rise before their force is exhausted. Although this bay is daily traversed by the inhabitants of the adjoining provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and the navigation of it is well known by them to be on the whole very safe and commodious, it is impossible

possible to form any conception of either, from what the present geographer in this his *complete system of geography* says of it. His scanty observations respecting it are indeed chiefly calculated to mislead. He does not even give the latitude and longitude of the city of St. John, from which most of the white-pine masts, yards, and bowsprits for the supply of our navy are exported; nor of Annapolis on the other side of the bay, and nearly opposite; nor of Fredericton, the seat of government in New Brunswick. Neither does he give an useful description of any harbour in that bay, not even of that of Halifax itself.

When we follow the author into the Canadas, we find similar errors and omissions. He makes the distance between Quebec and Montreal 30 miles less than it is in reality. He places Kingston near the lake of a thousand islands, although it is well known that the uppermost of the *mille isles* is situated at least twenty-five miles below that town. His descriptions of Lakes Superior, Huron, and Michigan, are not only at variance with the map in which he lays them down, but are also contradictory and inconsistent: for in p. 20. Vol. iii, he says, 'there are several lakes of so great a size, that they deserve to be distinguished by the name of seas, particularly Lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron, which constitute one piece of water about 350 miles in length;'—and in p. 23. he speaks of them in these words: 'The Lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron, form one large inland sea, which might be called the sea of Canada or that of Huron. This expansion of water, as already mentioned, is about 350 miles in length and more than 100 at its greatest breadth: according to the French charts, that part of this sea, which is called *Lake Superior*, is not less than 1500 miles in circumference.'—'This part of the sea of Canada opens into the Lake *Huron* by the straits of St. Mary, about 40 in length, and in some places only one or two miles in breadth. The circumference of that part called Lake *Huron* is said to be about 1000 miles. Another short strait leads into the third Lake called *Michigan*, also navigable for ships of any burthen.'—Here, then, he first speaks of these Lakes as three inland seas; and then he considers them as one, though they are separated by narrow straits of considerable length. He might as well represent the Sea of Marmora, the Euxine, and that of Azof, as one; or the Lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, Sinclair, Eric, and Ontario, as forming altogether one inland sea.—He observes that the strait of St. Mary is in some places only one or two miles broad: but as laid down by him in the map it is at least 30.—He tells us that the length of the expansion of water formed by these three great
Lakes

Lakes is about 350 miles, and that its greatest breadth is somewhat more than 100. Now how is it possible for a sheet of water only 350 miles long, and about 100 broad, to furnish a circuit of 2500 miles; which, according to his own statement, is formed by Lakes Superior and Huron taken together, exclusive of Lake Michigan? It is astonishing that this impossibility did not occur to him. Besides, by his own map, the greatest breadth of Lake Superior is upwards of 200 miles; and taken together with Lake Huron, it occupies from east to west, in the latitude of about 46° , (which is far, however, from being the direction of their greatest length taken conjointly,) upwards of 10° .

We could point out many more deficiencies and inaccuracies if our limits permitted. The warmest admirers of the author, as a geographer, must admit that he is a lame and uninformed hydrographer; and of one circumstance we cannot avoid taking notice, viz. that at the beginning of the work he does not give any definitions of either a geographical or an hydrographical nature.

A great portion of these volumes being composed of extracts from different writers, the language is of course various and diversified. The author's own style is on the whole dignified, though not always accurate; and, by chusing that of Mr. Gibbon for his model, he has rendered it in many places too frothy and figurative for geographical description; the chief excellence of which consists in accuracy, precision, and perspicuity. We shall give one short specimen of it:

‘To the north of Europe is the Arctic ocean, the dismal and solitary reservoir of myriads of miles of ice, the very skirts of which, floating in enormous mountains, crowned with brilliant pinnacles of every hue, delight the eye and appal the heart of the mariner. Yet this enormous waste is, in the hand of Providence, a fertile field of provisions for the human race. Here the vast battalions of herrings seem to seek a refuge from numerous foes, and to breed their millions in security. About the middle of winter, emerging from their retreat, they spread in two divisions, one towards the west, which covers the shores of America, as far as the Chesapeak and Carolina; while a third more minute squadron passes the streight between Asia and America, and visits the coasts of Kamchatka. The most memorable division reaches Iceland about the beginning of March, in a close phalanx of surprising depth, and such extent, that the surface is supposed to equal the dimensions of Great Britain and Ireland. They are however subdivided into numberless columns of five or six miles in length, and three or four in breadth, followed by numerous sea fowl, and perceivable by the rippling of the water, and a brilliant reflexion like that of a rainbow. In April or May the vanguard of those allotted to the British Dominions reaches Shetland, and the grand body arrives in June; towards

wards the end of which month, and through that of July, they are in the greatest perfection, a circumstance well known to the Dutch fishers, who then caught that superior sort which formed the grand source of the wealth of the United Provinces. From Shetland one division proceeds towards the east, as far as Yarmouth, where they appear in October. The other brigade passes to the west, along both shores of Ireland. A few stragglers are found at irregular periods, having proceeded beyond their powers of return; but it is generally credited, that millions regain the Arctic Ocean, and deposit their spawn about the month of October.'

Mr. P.'s quotation from Pomponius Mela clearly proves it to have been the opinion of that author, that rhetorical flourish and flowery ornamented composition were unsuitable to geographical description.

Though the Index is said to be 'revised, enlarged, and improved,' it is still far from complete or even accurate. We look in vain for *Asia Minor*, *Cossier*, and *Lampedosa*: which latter is also not marked in the map of the Mediterranean Sea, though it has lately been so much an object of discussion.

ART. IX. *Hints to the Public, and the Legislature, on the Nature and Effect of Evangelical Preaching.* By a Barrister. Part I. 8vo. pp. 147. 3s. 6d. stitched. Johnson. 1808.

SUBSTITUTIONS for virtue have been the fashion in all ages, and under all systems of religion. The Pagans were very ready to believe that sacrifices, processions, and splendid festivals, were more acceptable to their Deities than practical morality; and when we advert to the history of their Pantheon, we cannot be surprised at the features and quality of their idolatry. The Jews, notwithstanding the sublime representations afforded them of the holiness of Jehovah, and the repeated assurances which they received respecting the superior importance of moral obedience, were incessantly disposed to place their chief dependence on the ceremonials of their religion; to bring the offering of a sacrificial victim instead of a contrite heart; and to pay tithes of mint, annice, and cummin, while they neglected "the weightier matters of the law." Even since the revelation of the Gospel, which is declared to be *a doctrine according to godliness*, the same kind of delusion has prevailed. Among the Papists, confessions, penances, indulgences, and absolutions, have served to strew poppies over the guilty conscience; and among Protestants, who have not scrupled to laugh at what they have termed the mummary of the Catholic religion, notions equally absurd and injurious to the cause of sound morals have been maintained and

and propagated with astonishing zeal. Personal righteousness is now vilified by many as a quality which cannot enter into the composition of an acceptable Being in the sight of God; and those exhortations to virtue, and to a *patient continuance in well doing*, which are so frequent in the Gospel, are too often proscribed as a species of admonition which ought not to be tolerated by a Christian audience.

A party has arisen among us, calling themselves *Evangelical Preachers*, who have undertaken to *evangelize* the world, and to preach peace and salvation to sinners in a very singular strain. Their doctrine, being very palatable to weak and sinful creatures, has obtained the most flattering success; and emboldened by increasing numbers, these orators protrude their sentiments with a sort of apostolic authority. It is high time that their pretensions should be examined, that their whole system should be analyzed, and that their prominent tenets should be closely compared with the word of God. The author before us has therefore commendably employed himself in endeavouring to rouse the sensible part of the public to a consideration of the mischiefs which, he apprehends, the cause of morality and practical religion is sustaining from the labours of these Evangelical Preachers; and, by the evidence which is here produced, he makes out (to use the language of his profession) *a very strong case against them*. In this warfare, he does not deal in generalities nor fight with shadows: but he names the writers whose tenets he combats, quotes the passages from their works which have excited his indignant animadversions, and, like an able disputant, investigates the accuracy of those terms and expressions which are used to convey the fashionable orthodoxy of the present age. We regard the subject as in the highest degree important; and though we would not be so uncharitable nor so unjust as to question the goodness of the motive of these Evangelical Divines, we are of opinion with this Barrister that their language is very indiscreet, that it does not harmonize with the tenor of the Gospel, and that *prima facie* it tends to subvert among the common people, all the fundamental principles of morality and practical religion. If such an opinion be well founded, the progress of this evangelical sect is to be deplored as a public evil, and to be enumerated among our national misfortunes. Perhaps we should not call the attention of the Legislature to it precisely in the mode to which this Barrister is inclined: but the growth of this sect ought to put all the sensible ministers of the National Church *on the alert*, and should dispose them to unite in recommending a revival of the book of common prayer,

prayer, and of our translation of the Scriptures, in order that the whole may be rendered more homogeneous than it is in its present state. Some clergymen have expressed themselves very plainly on the expediency of such a measure; well knowing that, though the general tenor of the Liturgy is in accordance with the language of the Gospel, and inculcates the necessity of good works, a few expressions unluckily occur which seem to imply that good works are of *no* importance and estimation; and that we "receive the remission of our sins, and are made partakers of the kingdom of heaven," *entirely* on another ground*.

Our pages have often intimated that the meaning of the terms *self-righteousness* and *imputed righteousness* has not been sufficiently defined. Let religionists ask themselves, can the quality of righteousness be predicated of any subject or substance in which it does not reside? If it cannot, then every Being who is righteous must be self-righteous. Again, is righteousness a transferable quality; if we say no, is it not as absurd to speak of its being imputed to a person entirely vicious, as it is to talk of the property of heat being imputed to ice, or that of solidity to a vacuum? By asking these questions, we conceive that we do not invalidate the doctrine of *grace in Christ*; for mankind may receive benefits from the merits and the righteousness of Christ, without the actual transfer of guilt to innocence on the one hand, or of innocence to guilt on the other. The Evangelical Preachers, having never (as it should seem) ascertained the exact import of these words, to the use of which they are so very partial, have fallen, in our estimation, into a gross mistake, which is the root and origin of their misconceptions. We hope that the publication now before us will contribute to open their eyes; and as we are desirous of giving effect to the seasonable hints which it contains, we notice it more at length than the size of the pamphlet might seem to require.

Against these Evangelical Preachers, as we have already intimated, the Barrister prefers his indictment in a very regular way, and argues every point of the case with great energy. He refers to the writings of those divines from whom he makes his quotations, and marks those expressions which he conceives to be highly objectionable. In the first place, certain passages are extracted from a publication by Dr. Hawker, in which the preacher, admitting the *utter inability of man to*

* How does the passage to which we allude accord with the introductory sentence, "when the wicked man turneth," &c.?

do any good, tells his congregation that he shall forbear to 'exhort them to do it,' on which the following comments are made :

' If the *preacher* cannot help us, and we cannot help *ourselves*, for what use are churches erected at all?—These Calvinistic teachers do well to suppress, as far as they are able, the exercise of *reason*; thus far the public have cause to be thankful, for certainly their *evangelical* premises lead to very dangerous conclusions.

" Why stand ye here all the day idle?" said the lord of the vineyard; they said unto him, " Because no man hath hired us." Surely had they been brought up under an *evangelical* teacher, they would have made a very different reply.—" Because we have no *natural power to work*," would have been their answer; " to hire us would be useless, for having no power to help *ourselves*, still less have we a power to help *others*."—But in this beautiful parable, our SAVIOUR teaches us an important *moral* truth which this *helpless* order of sinners would do well to remember—that he did not live and die to leave them an *EXAMPLE* they were unable to follow, nor would have commanded any man to *TAKE UP* his cross, if he had not strength to support it.'

The phrase in the Confession, "*there is no health in us*," does not imply a total incapacity for doing the will of God, but a diseased or vitiated state. The patient's need of a physician, which that expression declares, does not indicate the total destruction of all the powers and energies of the system. We may be greatly out of health both physically and morally, and yet be capable of vigorously exerting ourselves towards our recovery. What must, in short, be the consequence if we were not? Could that be a duty which it was utterly impossible for us to perform? Do not these preachers, therefore, in fact, deny the existence of all moral obligation? for 'it is clear, (as the Barrister says,) that unless we have a power to obey, the duty of obedience cannot exist.' Knowing, however, that this kind of close logic will be stigmatized as '*carnal* reason,' he ventures to tell these gentlemen that 'this phrase is utter nonsense, and that we might as well talk, only that our ears are not accustomed to it, of *crooked* straightness or *diseased* health. The phrase *carnal* reason is just as contradictory, and therefore just as absurd.'

When Dr. Hawker advances to the display of the freedom and sovereignty of grace, he makes his hearers and readers easy on the score of duty; for he tells them that there is not a *word* or *syllable* about duties and obligations; and that in the new covenant "there are neither *ifs* nor *buts* : No conditions, nor terms." Such language may be called *good news to sinners* : but, as this Barrister very properly remarks,

' It would be well if these reverend gentlemen would explain to the world what it is they mean, when they declare the gospel to be—

" a co-

“a COVENANT of *grace*, WITHOUT TERMS and WITHOUT CONDITIONS,”—since it is the very essence of a *covenant* of every kind, that it should contain *conditions*, on the performance of which its validity depends.—It is of great importance that this matter should be rightly understood, since it is most essential that in this town of London, where theft, adultery, robbery, murder, fraud, and every species of vice abound—that it should not be publicly proclaimed, and privately taught, that the *abstaining from all this* MAKES NO PART OF THAT COVENANT WHICH THE GOSPEL CONTAINS; which must be true if it is a COVENANT WITHOUT TERMS OR CONDITIONS. It would be well at least for the sake of society, if these *faithful preachers* would not persuade the multitude wholly to throw aside that covenant contained in the gospel of the New Testament, which HAS terms and conditions, and which teaches us that the only way to find acceptance with God, is by doing his will—A covenant the terms of which are thus distinctly declared—IF YE WOULD ENTER INTO LIFE, KEEP THE COMMANDMENTS—A covenant, the CONDITION of which our Saviour has himself most solemnly proclaimed, and with equal solemnity, has denounced the awful consequences attending the breach of it, EXCEPT ye repent, ye shall ALL likewise PERISH.’

Another divine of the same school (see Sermons by Rev. E. Cooper) tells us that “God justifies the sinner freely, and imputes to him *righteousness without works* :” but is not this expression a contradiction in terms? Might not the preacher, with equal accuracy, have talked of solidity without length, breadth, and thickness?

Mr. R. Hill comes in for a share of attention from the Barrister, who reprobates the “*Village Dialogues*” of this reverend gentleman as tending to make ‘the rising generation of ignorant and dissolute rustics laugh at what he terms *the white-wash of morality*.’ Exhortations to practical virtue seem to be proscribed by this sect as the worst species of heresy :

‘The preacher of the duties of Christianity—the better to degrade him in the opinion of the common people,—is represented in these Dialogues under the flimsy name of TAPLASH*, (for those who have to deal with the multitude know well that a name goes a great way,) his character is made to associate with it the idea of all that is offensive and absurd.—Then as to his sermons, “the ingredients of all his compositions,” (says this evangelical accuser,) “seemed to be nothing better than flimsy declamations and religious compliments—he would be talking of the *reward* we were to receive from the fair hand of our *virtuous conduct*.”—Thus the ignorant are taught in pretty plain terms and by a very plain inference that our SAVIOUR’S SERMON on the Mount was mere flimsy declamation,—“Blessed are the poor in spirit, for *their’s* is the kingdom of God. Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth. Blessed are they that hunger and thirst

* Vapid poor small beer.

after righteousness, for they shall be filled." Thus said the Son of God,—and thus does he stand involved in the accusation—He too we see—for his words are before us,—he too would be talking of the *reward we were to receive* from the hand of our *virtuous conduct*. Thus is the Saviour himself held up to derision, who as a MORAL PREACHER had no equal, but who, if the new evangelical host can help it, shall have no imitators.'

To expose the folly of these declaimers against moral exhortation, the following *reductio ad absurdum* is framed :

'The religion of the New Testament, according to the evangelical preacher, is the religion of PAGANISM, for the religion of the New Testament most earnestly puts us upon *doing something*, in order to recommend ourselves to God ; its language is " This do, and thou shalt live ;" it therefore has not that *distinguishing peculiarity* which according to him exclusively denotes the religion of Christ,—and it sets forth conditions to be performed by ourselves, which *that religion* we are told does not.—It follows therefore that the religion of the New Testament is not the true religion of Jesus Christ.'

As the professors of the new divinity are incessantly appealing to our Saviour's account of the Pharisee in Luke xviii. for the purpose of stigmatizing *self-righteousness*, the Barrister gently hints to them that this parable was not spoken to the truly righteous, who trusted in their good works for acceptance, but " to certain who *trusted* in themselves *that they were* righteous," or to persons who laboured under *self-delusion*.—Poor Job's crime is stated by Mr. R. Hill, in his " Village Dialogues," to be *self-righteousness* : but while Mr. H. condemns Job for his *self-righteousness*, might not Mr. H. himself with equal propriety be reprobated for his *self-faith*, if we may be permitted to add a new term to the old jargon ? for we cannot perceive why one virtuous or commendable exercise of the mind should fall under disgrace rather than another.

' What, after all, is the meaning of this term *self-righteous*, which is canted about from mouth to mouth, and from sermon to sermon, with such a tone of bitter condemnation ? Do those who adopt it one after another, pause to enquire what they mean by it ?—Does not righteousness consist in the practice of those duties which the gospel enjoins, and abstaining from those crimes which the gospel condemns ? If so, must not each individual *himself* practise that which is right, and refrain from that which is wrong ?—Can *another* tell truth *for* a liar, or be honest *for* a housebreaker ?—Can the licentious be pure *by substitute* or the profane be devout *by deputy* ?—Can another be upright *for* the swindler, or chaste *for* the seducer ?—Must not every bad man leave off *his own* evil courses, and must he not *himself* repent and reform ?—Is it not expressly declared that it is " *he that doeth* righteousness, that is righteous."

Every reader who can distinguish sense from nonsense must subscribe to the accuracy of this representation, and must lament that such pains are taken by men who profess to preach the Gospel, to degrade moral duties in the estimation of the common people; who are daily told that *self-righteousness is filthy rags*.

It will perhaps be said that the Barrister is too severe against the preachers whom he designates as 'evangelical anti-moralists,' and that he has not exhibited the whole of their creed, the bottom of which is designed to neutralize the poison that swims at the top: but, since the thoughtless and vicious multitude, to whom the above-mentioned doctrine is preached, and by whom it is swallowed with avidity, more frequently skim the top than dive to the bottom, it may justly be represented as extremely dangerous. The whole system, in our judgment, is founded on misconception and misapprehension, and must be discarded by those who have learned to affix precise ideas to words, or know how to reason with correctness.

ART. X. *Orders in Council, or an Examination of the Justice, Legality, and Policy of the New System of Commercial Regulations; with an Appendix of State Papers, Statutes, and Authorities.* 8vo. pp. 114. 4s. Longman and Co. 1808.

ART. XI. *An Inquiry into the Causes and Consequences of the Orders in Council; and an Examination of the Conduct of Great Britain towards the Neutral Commerce of America.* By Alexander Baring, Esq., M.P. 2d Edition. 8vo. pp. 179. 4s. Richardson. 1808.

WE unite in one article our consideration of these important pamphlets, because by their subjects they very naturally and aptly combine; and together they present a complete view of the objections to which our late Orders of Council are exposed. The anonymous writer of the first joins to an acquaintance with the principles and operations of commerce, the knowledge of a professor of public law and a municipal lawyer; while to a similar intimacy with the effects of commerce, the latter author adds the precious advantage of experience and practice in its concerns. From the former of these tracts, the reader will learn the substance of the remarkable edicts in question, the qualities of their structure, their incongruity with the rules of the law of nations and with those of our own municipal code, and will also find in it very important observations on their impolicy and inexpediency: but

But it is to the latter of these productions that he will be most indebted on this score.

The opposition of these Orders to the law of nations has been admitted by some of their advocates; who have sought to repel the objection founded on that ground, by denying the obligations of the law of nations in the present circumstances of the world: alleging that this law owes its authority to compact, and that, the compact having been dissolved or disregarded by the parties interested in it, all are now at liberty to act as they shall judge proper. This doctrine is said to have been laid down in a certain great assembly, by the highest authority in these matters.—The law of nations, however, we conceive to mean the rules of justice, as regulating the conduct of nations in their intercourse with each other; and which are the same rules of justice with those by which individuals are required to govern their conduct in society. If it be not denied that this code is less obligatory on nations than on individuals, (and we are not aware that such denial can be maintained,) it will follow from the reasoning above quoted that morality itself is dependent on compact; and that it is not of immutable and eternal obligation, as had been universally held in this country down to the present period, and in support of which tenet we have so many learned and ingenious productions, that are *chefs d'œuvre* of the human mind. If such a notion of the law of nations, being obligatory only to this limited extent be tenable, morality is not binding on an individual in a state of nature any longer than it continues to be observed by those among whom he lives; so that, if they commit extortions, rapes, and murders, he is justified in doing the same. This is again to set up Hobbes, and to sweep away from our shelves the Cumberlands, Cudworths, Clarkes, Prices, and Butlers. If such, however, be the doctrine on mere moral grounds, we are at a loss to conceive how it can be justified on those of religion; an observation which has the more weight, inasmuch as the authors and supporters of those Orders claim to be christians *par excellence*, being of the class which designates itself as the *evangelical*: though, indeed, as we have recently shewn, *morality* and *good works* are too often contemned and discarded by that sect*. We have lately declared ourselves sticklers for commerce; and we feel as little disposed to sacrifice *old morality*, from complaisance to the delusions of the day: for we are so old fashioned as to maintain that there never can exist a state of things, as long as empires and individuals themselves exist, in

* See Art. IX. of this Review.

which the rules of justice will not be binding on the one and the other. Of the many grave questions which this doctrine suggests, it does not fall within our province on an occasion like the present to attempt the elucidation.

In this war of edicts between the French ruler and the present British ministers, it is undeniable that the former was the aggressor, and that, as acting against him, the latter are justified in proceeding to the utmost extent of retaliation: but, while they aim their blows at him, they should be careful that the injury which they inflict does not fall on themselves, or rather on their country. As opposed to him, they had an undoubted right of construing rigorously the absurd but ambiguous decree of November 1806, but here that right ended. They, however, disdained to confine themselves within any such limits; and in their scheme of retaliation, their vengeance falls lightly on the enemy, while it is principally heaped on the heads of neutrals, who were no parties to the aggression. It is contended, moreover, by the authors of the orders in council, that they find in the order of the 7th of February 1807, issued under our late government, 'an ægis which completely protects them from all attacks, at least from all attacks on the part of those who framed that decree.' In that Order, a power was certainly reserved, which goes partially to the extent of that which has been called forth by the latter Orders; and which the then ministers claimed the liberty of exerting in case that neutrals should acquiesce in the French decree according to its more unfavourable interpretation: but the question now is, had neutrals so acquiesced previously to the issue of the recent orders? If this fact, of which we have seen no satisfactory proof, were established, then would ministers be justified to the extent of declaring France and the countries subject to it in a state of blockade: but what do we find in the order of the 7th February, 1807, which justifies or in the least countenances that complicated interference in the concerns of neutrals, and the subjecting their trade to licenses and taxes, which is not less an invasion of the sovereignty of such states than an infringement of the antient constitutional rights of British subjects? So gross is this outrage on neutral nations, that Bonaparte, covered as he is with delinquencies of this kind, thinks that he may reproach our ministers with the act.

If a neutral has cause for complaining of these orders, the anonymous *Examiner* of them makes it appear, as we have just observed, that they are not less derogatory to the most precious and sacred rights of British subjects. The researches of this author prove that royal proclamations can in no degree
affect

affect imports and exports. Lord Hardwicke, who was equally a constitutional and a profound lawyer, could not be induced by even the apprehensions of a famine to issue a proclamation for regulating the corn-trade. These Orders, however, it is here abundantly proved, are not only at wide variance with our antient fundamental laws, but are in direct violation of modern statutes and the latest practice. If we acquit their reputed framer of wilful and intentional blame in this respect, it is only because we are aware that he is likely to be better acquainted with the rules of the Cockpit, with the shifting maxims of Doctor's Commons, and with colonial ordinances, than with those antient fundamental laws, which form the bulwarks of our liberties. For drawing public attention to these sacred enactments, and to the late departure from them, we consider the author of the present *Examination* as intitled to general acknowledgement. His able sketch of them shews, on the part of our simple ancestors, a vigilant regard to the public interests, which must put to the blush the negligence of their boastful descendants, in having permitted abuses to grow up that must excite both shame and alarm in the minds of all considerate men.

After having given the substance of the Orders, and illustrated their operation by the supposed case of an American vessel, the writer adds :

‘ This illustration comprehends the only material features of the new system, viz. its forcing all the neutral commerce to run through the ports of the United Kingdom ; its giving the English Government a command of the supply of cotton, and some smaller articles, as brandies, wines, European snuff, and tobacco ; and its stopping the exportation of all enemy's West India produce, except cotton, cochineal, and Indigo, either to this country or to any restricted part of Europe. It is upon these points that the policy of the measure must be tried.’

The privations to which this plan must reduce the enemy are expected by its authors to compel him to sue for peace : an idea which is here thus refuted and ridiculed :

‘ The French have borne every species of public and private calamity for nearly eighteen years ; they have passed through all the vicissitudes of revolution, from anarchy to despotism ; they have tasted only of war, with its whole train of evils, of which privations have been the smallest ; they have suffered the most unsparing conscription, augmented in rigour as the service of the army became more irksome and dangerous ; to all this they have submitted in quiet, with rallying points for emigration in the neighbouring nations, and for rebellion in the heart of their own country. No dangers, no calamities, no private distresses, not even the conscription itself, has

ever extorted a murmur of discontent—and we now expect insurrections to break out as soon as coffee and sugar shall become scarce at Paris, or the army shall find tobacco growing dear! The conscription is at an end, or is become only holiday work; the armies go out not to fight but to revel in triumph, and to amuse themselves with foreign travel; but grocery and snuff are advancing in price, and let Bonaparte look to it! If he does not speedily make peace on our terms, restore the Bourbons, and give up Belgium, his earthly course is run!—This is the argument.'

As it must be mournfully admitted that the public has lately shewn a relish for delusion, the author apologizes for submitting to it representations that are founded on liberal and enlightened views: but we are sure that at least those who patronize our labours will be gratified by a perusal of the passage which is thus introduced:

'If America is in truth our best customer; if she possesses what we require, and wants what we have to export; if the market which she thus furnishes is not only beyond all others extensive, but must grow with the rapid growth of her resources, and continually accelerate the progress of our own; if from language, laws, government, the trade with her inhabitants is next to a home, or colonial commerce the most convenient and beneficial that we can carry on; if in short, America is, as it were, made for us, and we for her—can any but the veriest driveller in political science, doubt for a moment that her gains are our gains; that we are sufferers by her losses; that the less she trades with other nations, the less she will trade with ourselves; and that to confine her foreign commerce to her trade with England, would be to diminish, if not to destroy this trade also. Next to our own territory and that of our foreign settlements, were we as wise as we are brave, we should wish well to the American states. The ruin of the great home and colonial market alone could injure us more than the ruin of the American commerce; and the impolicy of fettering that commerce, if it were practicable, would be exceeded only by the folly which all the maritime nations in Europe have sooner or later lamented—the folly of stunting, by monopolies, the traffic of their foreign settlements.'

We fear that the following description of the national feeling in regard to America is in most of its parts but too correct:

'Hatred of America seems a prevailing sentiment in this country. Whether it be that they have no crown and nobility, and are on this account not quite a *gentle* power—or that their manners are less polished than our own—or that we grudge their independence, and hanker after our old monopoly of their trade—or that they closely resemble us in language, character, and laws—or, finally, that it is more our interest to live well with them than with any other nation in the world—the fact is undeniable, that the bulk of the people would fain be at war with them, and those who are a little wiser would never rest till they make them go to war with France. The former

former wish is plainly the worst of the two ; but to desire that America should give up her neutrality is not a great deal wiser. How can she assist us, or, to use the modish phrase, make common cause with us, against France, half so effectually as by continuing to trade with both, while both are fighting together, and thus preserve our commerce, to whom commerce is so much more essential than to the enemy ? There is, in truth, only one line of conduct, which America can adopt more hurtful to us, than that of taking part with us ; and this is taking part with our enemy. If any measures of ours can ensure such a misfortune, the good people of these realms may rest satisfied that the late Orders in Council will answer the purpose.*

The circulation of the latter * of the tracts before us shews, however, that, if the British public no longer possesses energy and virtue sufficient to follow reason, it will at least respectfully listen to her councils. Amid all the propensity to deception which we regard as one of the most unfavourable features of the age, and in despite of the frowns of power or the whispers of influence, Mr. Baring's pamphlet has been much read, studied, and admired ; although the object of it is to shew that the favourite measures of the day have originated in partial views, are grossly unjust with regard to neutrals, and highly mischievous with reference to ourselves. It is in vain that civilians applaud and extol,—the sentence of the merchant has stamped their character and settled their doom. Their advocates, on a late occasion, deprecated opposition to them on the alleged ground of the danger of any interference with government in state measures ; while they seemed anxious to avow that they did not consider them as wise, and that they principally endured them because they were inefficient. We respect the civilians in their own limited sphere, but we protest against any claims on their part to authority in questions of commercial policy ; and we feel ourselves confirmed in this opinion, when we recollect that the head of the fraternity, whose learning, taste, and accomplishments we agree with all competent judges in admiring, has countenanced and panegyricized the lame and shallow sophisms of Mr. Spence on the subject of foreign commerce. Whoever wishes to be made fully acquainted with the importance of our trade with America, the benefits which we derive from it, the evils which the loss of it would produce, and the degree in which it is affected by the late edicts,—let him peruse these pages.

Three years ago, appeared a pamphlet intitled *War in Disguise, or the Frauds of Neutral Flags* ; the eloquence of

* The former has also reached a 2d edit. which contains five additional state documents in the Appendix.

which, (says Mr. Baring,) employed on materials partially sound and generally plausible, combined with the manly and patriotic spirit which it breathes, established the author's opinions in the mind of the public at large, and with many statesmen, of all political parties.* These qualities in that performance, combined with our incompetence to dispute its alleged facts, led us, on a supposition of those facts being correct, to speak in favourable terms of its reasoning and its purport: but it is here contended that its brilliancy was a mere *ignis fatuus*, the erroneous views of its author in regard to commerce are exposed, his facts are overturned, and in respect to the law the merchant completely triumphs over the advocate*. The rule of the war 1756 is shewn to be no more a part of the law of nations, than the licences and taxations imposed on neutrals by the new code. It was set up only during one war; and Lord Chatham, its great supporter, justified it solely on the ground of necessity. Mr. Baring states the circumstances which induced neutrals at the time to submit to it. In the contest with America, our Government never attempted to assert it; and though it was proclaimed at the commencement of the revolutionary war, it was revoked in the course of a few months, and a compensation of damages was allotted to the suffering parties for all the seizures which had been made while it was in force. In the Russian treaty, it is virtually renounced by the adoption of a different and contrary rule.—Thus stands, then, this famed law, which it was the main object of “War in Disguise” to revive and assert.

On the subject of the American discontents, Mr. Baring is equally fair and successful; and he proves to demonstration that they have arisen from provocation on the part of this country, as bitter and irritating as ever was suffered by one state from another. The provocation was nothing less than a sudden general sweeping, by the cruizers of this country, of all American vessels which were sailing to France and its dependencies in the course of their accustomed allowed trade, in the year 1805, without any previous proclamation or notice. This violent proceeding arose out of a new principle of decision, which was then for the first time adopted in our supreme prize court; and thus were numbers of American individuals ruined in their fortunes, who had embarked their property in these adventures on the faith of our tribunals proceeding on fixed principles of decision. The sentence was that of the Council, on an appeal from the Admiralty Court.

* A gentleman of the legal profession is known to have been the writer of that pamphlet.

Mr. Baring's production claims attention on account not only of the information and advice which it imparts on a matter of infinite importance, but of the valuable statements of the doctrines of political economy which occur in it, and of which the most eminent professors of the science might well be proud; while it occasionally descends into details which can be acquired only in the active pursuits of merchandise. It is peculiarly well adapted to form men to just and liberal views of our commercial interests; and though the author pleads for America against British injustice, numerous passages exhibit him in the character of a zealous advocate for the interests of his own country, of which he has so complete a knowledge.

If the maxim laid down by Mr. B. in his opening had been adopted by Government, we should never have heard of the famed Orders in council:

‘My object in entering into this detail of the proceedings of the merchants, and of the conduct of different Administrations, which have at last ended in these important changes, is to shew that, under whatever pretences they are recommended to popularity, they are purely the result of commercial calculation. The West India planter and merchant, the ship owner, the manufacturer for, and trader with, America, all contribute largely to the general mass from which our resources are derived; while each promotes with that honest zeal, which is the best means of general prosperity—his separate interests. But the public is in the situation of a general merchant, who has the whole of these various branches of commerce united in him. He endeavours by his skill to improve them equally; but when the interests of any of them clash, he determines, by a comparative estimate, which must be sacrificed. Such has most erroneously been considered to be the case in the present instance, and after long hesitation, that of America has been devoted. It is the correctness of this calculation to which I wish to call the attention of the public; and I think I shall be able to shew, not only that no sacrifice was called for, but that the victim has been most injudiciously selected.’

We wish that it were in our power to insert the statements which incontestibly prove, in opposition to the assertions of “*War in Disguise*,” that the commerce of America with the colonies of the enemy is conducted *bona fide*.—The following observation in regard to the rule of 1756 is worthy of the manly sense and candid mind of the author:

‘If we had maintained and defended this doctrine boldly and fairly against all nations, good arguments in favour of it could not at least be wanting; but when we have uniformly relaxed it, and indeed forbore to claim it, can it be consistent, either with magnanimity or good policy, to bring it forward now, merely because the only re-
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maining neutral has a defenceless commerce? If such cowardly injustice is to be one of our resources in these trying times, when elevation of sentiment and of national character is more than ever wanted, the means and strength of this powerful empire are indeed strangely misunderstood.'

The author gives this account of the decision which occasioned the first ill blood between America and this country :

' The important change in our conduct alluded to was introduced by the decision of the Lords of Appeal on the case of the cargo of the American ship *Essex*, at the Cockpit, in May 1805. The Admiralty Court had before decided what was or was not a continuation of the first voyage by the general complexion of the evidence, and that when goods had been made part of the common stock of America by a fair importation, and *the payment of duties*, they might be re-exported from thence to any part of the world.

' The Court of Appeal, though no reason was assigned for the condemnation in this case, was understood to have established the illegality of the trade, founded on a discovery, now made for the first time, that the duties on the cargo imported had not been actually paid *in money*, but by a bond of the importer *.

' This decision, although the distinction made was not calculated to catch the common eye, was well known to embrace the whole foreign trade of America, excepting that in her own produce. It circulated rapidly among our cruizers and privateers, and in the course of a fortnight the seas were cleared of every American ship they could find, which now crowded our ports for trial; and our West India merchants were gratified by neutral insurances, and freights, being at least doubled by this ingenious discovery.

' As this decision laid the foundation of all the complaints of America, of our vexatious measures against her trade, as it introduced a totally new line of conduct towards it, and as that change produced the Non-importation Act on her side, at which we affect so much indignation, a more minute examination of it is necessary for my purpose.'

He then shews the injustice of the decision, as well as its inconsistency with all preceding sentences in the Admiralty Court; and he farther adds :

' Nor was the injury to the Americans confined to the application of these new and vexatious principles; for our privateers and cruizers, apprehending little danger of being made answerable for their error, were not disposed to make nice distinctions, but detained and sent in

* In the case of the *Essex*, Orme, there were also some suspicious circumstances, which might of themselves have justified the condemnation. But it was well understood, and it is admitted by the author of "*War in Disguise*," p. 62. that this more rigid mode of determining the true criteria of the continuity of a voyage was established by this decision.'

every vessel they met with under the most frivolous pretences, in which they were also encouraged by the expectation of actual war. Of the extent to which this was carried, some idea may be formed, when it is stated, that cargoes, wholly of American produce, and of the produce of neutral countries trading with America, were captured, and even brought to trial *. In these instances, the judge decreed restitution of ship and cargo, and costs against the captors, with expressions of indignation, which so lawless an outrage necessarily excited; but the latter had, in the face of this censure, the audacity to enter appeals, and the American was obliged either to compromise or leave to the captors the option of bringing forward his appeal within a twelvemonth, with the possible advantage of an intervening war securing to him his prize †. The owners of privateers are in the daily practice of bringing in valuable cargoes, and offering immediately to release them for one or two hundred guineas; they sometimes require a much larger sum; and the London merchant is either obliged to acquiesce in this iniquitous robbery, or let his correspondent suffer the more expensive vexations, which it is unfortunately in the power of these people to inflict.

Mr. B. thus closes his account of the differences between the two countries:

‘ We have now reviewed the neutral commerce of America, and our conduct towards it, from the beginning of the last war until the commencement of the present administration; and it will be difficult to discover those concessions on our part, and those insolent incroachments on that of America, with the repetition of which the newspapers and publications of this country have endeavoured to inflame the public mind. We have seen, on the contrary, that America never took any part in the extravagant pretensions of the northern powers, at whose courts she had even no accredited ministers, and that her complaints of the system of vexation and oppression prac-

* The Governor Gilman, loaded with tobacco from New York to Amsterdam, and the Orion, from St. Petersburg to America, tried in the Court of Admiralty in October 1807.

† The right of appeal, instituted as a security against injustice, has been made a most formidable instrument of what it was intended to guard against. The captor almost invariably appeals when the inferior court decrees an acquittal! he has, in consequence, one year certain, during which he can keep the owner in suspense, with the addition of any farther time which the ingenuity of his lawyer may gain for him; and if, in the mean time, war is declared with the country to which the ship belongs, condemnation follows without reference to the merits of the first capture. When war was declared against Denmark, vessels of that country were then condemned in the court of Appeal, which were detained four and five years before. An immediate and summary decision is an undoubted and a principal right of neutrals; and if this practice is to be countenanced, they would be materially benefited by abandoning the right of appeal altogether.

tised towards her commerce since the year 1805, were but too well founded.'

Respecting the state of opinions in America, Mr. Baring's remarks are well worthy of consideration: but we have not room to quote them.

The author thus concludes a very luminous and convincing exposition of the interest of this country in the prosperity of America:

'From the examination which we have concluded of the nature and extent of the commerce of America, the following consequences are obvious:—First, that it is for our interest to promote the consumption of the produce of the soil of America in all parts of the world, and that three-fourths of the money proceeding from that consumption of the Continent of Europe are paid to us: secondly, that we are also interested in the indirect trade of America, and that articles of our own manufacture are the principal objects of it: and lastly, that every dictate of sound policy should lead us to see with pleasure the prosperity of a country, whose accumulating wealth contributes in various ways most essentially to our own.'

One of the most serious among the consequences, which Mr. Baring apprehends from the effects of the Orders of Council, is thus represented:

'A principal danger from sudden and forced changes, produced by the interference of Government in commercial affairs, arises from the difficulty and almost impossibility of tracing its extensive consequences and ramifications through the whole economy of a nation: for, although in the present instance, the decay of our manufactures is the most conspicuous consequence, another evil, of a most serious nature, presents itself.

'I have shewn, that, even supposing the cordial co-operation of America in the execution of the Orders in Council, there would be a diminution of our receipts from the Continent of four or five millions sterling. The moderate state of our foreign exchanges for some time past, shews how much we want this large aid, which our American connection indirectly afforded; and every merchant connected with America knows that this demand alone for bills on London, which has prevailed in every part of the Continent, has for a long time supported the exchange, the circulation of which, even between Paris and London, all the vigilance of the enemy has not been able to prevent. In this manner we have paid to a considerable extent, for the support of our fleets and armies in the Mediterranean and the Baltic*, by sending our manufactures to America; a circumstance which must be easily understood by those who know the effect of the general circulation of exchanges, and that bills are fre-

* Bills drawn by our Commissaries in the Mediterranean on the Treasury, to a large amount, are frequently received from Leghorn, and other ports, for American account.

quently drawn in Paris, or Madrid, whilst the real transaction in merchandize, which gave rise to them, may have taken place in Russia or in India. Is it probable that this great defalcation will be made up in any other quarter? The only part of the Continent with which (to judge from present appearances) we have a chance of direct or indirect trade, is Russia; but with that country, the balance in the best times is against us, and this intercourse would rather increase than correct the evil.'—

'When the arm of power interferes, and deprives us at a blow of four or five millions sterling, which the industry of our manufacturers, if left to themselves, would have procured for us; at the same time that political causes prevent that corresponding contraction of our wants abroad, which it would otherwise be hardly possible to produce so suddenly as to meet the exigency; the consequences of such a shock demand the most serious consideration; and more especially when applied to a country standing in the singular predicament of abandoning the general medium of circulation, gold and silver, for paper, which is of no value beyond its own limits.'

We would solicit public attention to the remarkable circumstance recorded in the subsequent passage. One or the other party must err:

'We have a strong proof of the opinion of the enemy on the subject in question, in the singular coincidence that, while we were determining that the neutral state of America was injurious to us he had come to precisely the opposite conclusion; and a very short time before the appearance of our Orders in Council, it seems that the intention of France to permit no longer the neutrality of America was intimated to the Minister of that country at Paris—a circumstance which, reaching America very fortunately before our Orders in Council, may serve to mitigate the resentment with which the latter must otherwise be received. We therefore evidently differ in opinion with France as to the value of this neutrality, which both countries at the same instant had resolved to extinguish. I am decidedly disposed to think the opinion of our enemies the best judged. At all events, it must serve to reduce our idea of the extreme annoyance to them which we expect from our measures.'

In our selection of extracts, it has not been our object to consult the vitiated taste or to fan the miserable deceptions of the day; we have had solely in view the wishes of those who seek and value real information. Though both the publications which we have been reviewing are possessed of rare merit, they are marked by a great difference of character. In the former, we see acted the part of a dextrous and powerful advocate, in the latter we seem to peruse the advice and councils of a friend; nothing can be more forcible and luminous than the statements of the one, nothing more ingenuous and candid than the representations of the other; the

the one is a most able *ex parte* argument, the other a free and liberal disquisition; the one *forces*, the other *wins* our assent.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1808.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 12. *A Plan for permanently arming the Subjects of this Realm.*

By a Field-Officer of the Line, an Inspector of Volunteers in the Home District. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Egerton. 1807.

THE preface to this small performance states that, since this plan was prepared for the press, the author has seen a pamphlet purporting to be the speech of the Earl of Selkirk in the House of Lords, on a motion made by Lord Hawkesbury to permit a proportion of the militia to volunteer into the line; and that his Lordship's ideas, expressed in that speech, correspond very much with those which are here delivered. Be this as it may, *we* cannot coincide with either that noble Earl or the author; since the manifest object of the present plan is to destroy all voluntary exertions in the defence of this island, to extinguish that patriotic zeal which first gave birth to the volunteering system and still supports it, and to establish permanently and generally a coercive species of service, that would soon convert our government into a rigorous military despotism. It would subject all men in the country from 18 to 45 years of age, who have not 200l. per annum of funded or landed property, (with a few exceptions,) to a fine of 50l. each for not serving if drawn by ballot; while at the same time they remain liable to be drawn for the militia, and their parishes are bound to furnish others in their stead. It also sentences each person to a fine for every instance of non-attendance with his company on days of exercise or inspection; to indictment and imprisonment for a month if he absents himself six times, and even pays his fines; if oftener, to be tried by a court martial of local militia officers, and, if found guilty, to be sentenced to serve for seven years in such regiment of the line as the King may order; and for impropriety of conduct while attending his duty, to be sent on board the fleet, or to serve *out of the country*.—It moreover subjects every man, from 18 to 45 years of age, who possesses a funded or landed property of 200l. per annum, and declines serving as an officer, to a tax of ten per cent. on income in addition to the present tax, with the exception of members of parliament, the clergy, &c. The money arising from this additional tax is to be appropriated to the remuneration of half-pay officers of the line, who may be appointed to serve instead of the defaulters; and the persons paying it are notwithstanding to be liable to the ballot for the militia.

To any man who is acquainted with military subjects beyond the drill and the parade, and who has reflected seriously on the proper mode of defending Great Britain, it must be a matter of concern and regret

regret to see the press almost daily teem with chimerical, unconstitutional, and oppressive projects for embodying the population of this country; while they contain not a single observation deserving of notice, relative to the proper application of the force which we already possess, for the purposes of national defence. We have more men embodied now, and sufficiently disciplined, than are requisite to repel any invasion that may be attempted, if a judicious use be made of them. Are we, then, to adopt a plan destructive of our liberties, in order to provide against a contingency that may never happen; and which, were it to take place to-morrow, we are already more than competent to meet, under skilful leaders?

NOVELS.

Art. 13. *But which?* or Domestic Grievances of the Wolmore Family. By the Author of Leopold. 12mo, 2 Vols. sewed. Bentley. 1807.

The readers of novels may find some amusement in these volumes, though they will probably agree with us that it is rather hard to select an honest and inoffensive man, the best of the family, as a sacrifice for the vices and follies of the rest:—yet such is the case.

Art. 14. *Theodore, or the Enthusiast.* 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. sewed. Longman and Co.

This is an importation from Germany; and, although not so horrible as some others from that country, it contains a sufficient portion of miseries and premature deaths.

Art. 15. *Alphonsine:* or Maternal Affection. By Madame Genlis. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 2s. sewed. Hughes.

Whatever may be thought of the original production of Mad. Genlis, we cannot speak favourably of it in its present shape; for in this translation its beauties are obscured, and its faults rendered more glaring.

LAW.

Art. 16. *The Constable's Assistant;* being a Compendium of the Duties and Powers of Constables and other Peace Officers; chiefly as they relate to the apprehending of Offenders, and laying Information before Magistrates. By the Society for the Suppression of Vice. 8vo. pp. 48. 1s. Rivingtons. 1808.

To render generally known the duties of legal functionaries, and exhort them to their due discharge, must be praise-worthy acts; and if the Society, which sends out this publication, never overstepped this course, it would in our opinion deserve and obtain general commendation. The office of Constable (to borrow the language of the law) is more ministerial than judicial; this tract, we think, insists too much on the latter branch of it: not that this is to be overlooked, but we doubt the expediency of extending it beyond the limits to which law and practice have confined it. We rather doubt, also, the visitorial powers in regard to public houses, here ascribed to constables, on the authority of Mr. Colquhoun.

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The Society have taken the opinion of a respectable Gentleman of the law on their performance, and his judgment is prefixed to it. He pays an adroit compliment to the editors; and though we do not anticipate all the good from this tract which Mr. Const promises to his clients, still we agree with him in thinking that "it contains sufficient instruction to enable the officer to act with advantage to the community and with safety to himself."

Art. 17. *Letters on Capital Punishments*, addressed to the English Judges. By Beccaria Anglicus. 8vo. pp. 85. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1807.

A subject, in favour of which the interests of society plead equally with justice and humanity, is here urged on the attention of the venerable persons to whom it is addressed, in a style that is highly forcible and becoming. Though we cannot adopt, in an unqualified manner, all the abstract propositions asserted in this tract, we are as zealous as the author for the leading object of it, and as fully impressed with its importance. Of the benefits of a contrary system to that which is pursued in our penal code, we have not the least doubt, but the difficulties in the way of effecting a revision of it are truly great. Where shall we find spirit and patriotism to attempt it; and have the public a disposition to hail and support efforts of this kind? Distant enterprizes the most chimerical are preferred to solid internal improvements. The endeavours to reform the administration of justice in another part of the island, and attempts to heal the wounds of an important limb of the empire, have been treated with ridicule, and represented as below the notice of statesmen in these times; while the capture of some foreign settlement, and problematical expeditions which entail heavy burthens on the state, have been extolled as political achievements of the first importance. When so many men justify outrages on public law, can we expect that encouragement will be given to any endeavours to reform our municipal jurisprudence?

We would not be understood, however, to discourage attempts like the present, for such is very far from our attention; and however inauspicious the moment may be, let no friend to virtue and humanity relax in his efforts to advance knowledge or disseminate good principles. The reign of delusion, it is to be hoped, will sometime pass away, and the public again learn to distinguish between its true interests and deceptive chimeras. Should such a period ever arrive, the object so fully developed and so ably supported in this pamphlet will be one among the first that will engage the attention of the sage and the philanthropist. We fully agree with the author that in a well constituted society capital punishments are not only unnecessary, but 'that they are really injurious,' and that 'vindictive laws and sanguinary punishments retard the progress of civilization. By accustoming the people to scenes of horror, they tend to brutalize their manners, and make them regardless of the sufferings of others. In every nation, it will be found, that the people at large derive much of their character from the established laws and customs. If the laws and customs be austere, ferocious,

ferocious, and cruel, a considerable degree of austerity, ferocity and cruelty, will be discoverable in the people. Capital punishments retain the barbarous aspect of *vandalism*, and better assort with the manners of savage tribes than with those of a nation which holds the first rank in the civilized world. A man unaccustomed to inflict pain, or to see it inflicted, on his fellow-creatures, would be far less disposed to injure others, and be more affected with their sufferings, than one who had been long accustomed to see severe punishments inflicted, supposing their character to be in other respects the same. He who never saw any one die a violent death, unless he be destitute of every virtuous feeling, will shudder at the idea of inflicting such a death; but a man may be accustomed to such sights, until his feelings are so benumbed that, if he be much irritated, or any strong passion urge him to the deed, he will shed the blood of another without much emotion. Whatever tends to weaken the generous feelings of the heart, and render men indifferent to the sufferings of others, diminishes moral excellency, and is injurious to the character; but severe punishments have manifestly this tendency. That excellent writer, *Beccaria*, has expressed the same opinion. "In proportion (says he) as punishments become more cruel, the minds of men, as a fluid rises to the same height as that which surrounds it, grow hardened and insensible; and the force of the passions still continuing, in the space of a hundred years, the wheel terrifies no more than formerly the prison. That a punishment may produce the effect required, it is sufficient that the evil it occasions should exceed the good expected from the crime; including in the calculation the certainty of the punishment, and the privation of the advantage. All severity beyond this is superfluous, and therefore tyrannical."

Capital punishments are deprecated by this author as unnecessary to the well-being of society, as partaking of the nature of *revenge*, as subversive of the chief end of correction which is *amendment*, as making no reparation for injury committed, and as inconsistent with the spirit of the Christian Religion.

EDUCATION.

Art. 18. *The Child's Monitor*, or Parental Instruction; in Five Parts; containing a great Variety of progressive Lessons, adapted to the comprehension of Children; and calculated to instruct them in Reading, in the Use of Stops, in Spelling, and dividing Words into proper Syllables; and at the same time to give them, some Knowledge of Natural History, of the Scriptures, and of several other sublime and important Subjects. By John Hornsey. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Among the various useful books that have been lately published for the improvement of young persons, the work before us claims a very respectable station. The young scholar will here not only reap improvement in learning, but at the same time be advanced in useful knowledge: literature, instruction, and amusement go hand in hand; and the public are under obligations to the author for bringing so many subjects together for the advantage of the rising generation.

REV. MARCH, 1808.

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Art.

Art. 19. *The Book of Monosyllables*; or an Introduction to the Child's Monitor; adapted to the Capacities of young Children; in two Parts; calculated to instruct them by familiar Gradations in the first Principles of Education and Morality. By John Hornsey. 12mo. 1s. 6d. bound. Longman and Co.

A great number of monosyllabic lessons are here collected, beginning with words of two letters only, and advancing gradually to those that are longer. Like the foregoing publication, to which this is intended for an introduction, its design is not confined to the attainment of language, but aims at more important ends. We may recommend both works to the notice of those who are engaged in teaching the elements of the English language.

POETRY.

Art. 20. *The Goodness of God*, a Poem: to which are added pious Meditations, with important Considerations, and Advice to the young unmarried Man and Woman. By William Neville Hart, formerly a Captain in his Majesty's 79th Regiment of Infantry. Crown 8vo. pp. 100. Jones. 1806.

A captain in the army will not be expected to be a profound theologian, and some excuse must be made for him if he be not a charming poet. Mr. Hart seems to write under serious impressions, and from a good motive: but he has not sufficiently studied his subject, and appears to have little knowledge of the constituent properties of true poetry. From a short specimen, our readers will perceive that this work is not intitled to any critical examination:

‘ On thee, my God! I lean: advance’d the hour,
The time of day far spent; at length I seek
The vineyard of “I Am!” My work begun,
Continue’d firmly, persevere’d in, done,
May I receive my penny with the rest,
With those who labour’d from the first of morn.’

The author's penitence and piety may be truly commendable, but for his poetry a penny is too great a price.

Art. 21. *The Triumphs of Petrarch*, translated into English Verse, with an Introduction and Notes. By the Rev. Henry Boyd, A. M., Chaplain to his Royal Highness the Duke of Sussex, &c. 12mo. pp. 286. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The Italian scholar alone is intitled to appreciate with accuracy the beauties and the defects of the *Trionfi* of Petrarch: but the English reader may still conceive the nature and spirit of these effusions, through the medium of translation. Mr. Boyd's preface and introduction bespeak no ordinary share of taste and polite learning; and in respect of ease and elegance of manner, we consider his present attempt as very deserving of commendation, and likely to be perused with pleasing emotion by the admirers of ethical and impressive poetry. We are duly warned, however, against adopting it as a faithful transcript of the original. Petrarch's manner, it must be confessed, is somewhat

sometimes quaint, abrupt, or obscure : but we may be allowed to doubt whether the peculiar style of any writer will justify licence and diffusion in his translator.

As we gave several specimens of Mr. Boyd's poetic talents in reviewing his former publications, (see Rev. Vol. lii. N. S. p. 50. and 54.) we may be excused from making extracts on the present occasion : but we must not withhold the remark that we have still to regret the little pains which he has bestowed on the correction of his rhymes. In his preliminary sonnet, to Mr. Roscoe, we meet with *veiled* and *steeled*; and, amid much polish and evident facility of versification, we cannot easily pardon *star* and *snare*, *car* and *share*, *broke* and *struck*, *draught* and *thought*, *smiled* and *filled*, *beneath* and *faith*, *doom* and *roam*, &c. In his prose, the most glaring defect is a disregard of the concord of noun and verb. Thus we have 'the contrast—*imprint*,' 'that dissolution—which *make*,' 'the natural sentiments—*is*,' &c.—These subordinate blemishes, however, are proportionably less numerous here than in his translation of Dante : and, in a work of considerable length, some of them might be overlooked as the *pauca macula* to which we are enjoined to extend the charity of criticism.

Art. 22. *Isabel*: from the Spanish of Garcilaso de la Vega ; with other Poems and Translations from the Greek, Italian, &c. &c. By Robert Walpole, Esq., B.A., of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

Mr. Walpole treats the public liberally : he opens his study door, and shews them his amusements ; and it is by an indulgence of this sort that we often know a man better than by the sight of his serious and formal occupations. Mr. W. however, has no reason to be ashamed of his sports and relaxations ; the nature of them is defensible, and his skill in them is respectable : the harp is indeed borrowed, but he modulates on it learnedly, and plays with taste.

The present small volume consists of 25 poems, translated from the Spanish, the Greek, the Italian, the French, the German, &c.—*Isabel*, and the succeeding nine, are now published for the first time : but the others formerly appeared, annexed to "Specimens of scarce Translations of the 17th Century from the Latin Poets," by Creech, Sir C. Sedley, Du Perron, Nicole, B. Jonson, &c. noticed in the Review for December 1806.—The poems newly translated are from Garcilaso de la Vega, Ariosto, Gesner, Kleist, Parry, Francisco de Figueroa, Petrarca, &c. In comparing these translations with such of the originals as we happen to have at hand, we have reason to commend their fidelity and neatness. Considerable beauty, indeed, is discovered in particular passages ; as in these stanzas from the *Isabel* of Garcilaso de la Vega :

' And here when life first smil'd,
Did Hope, sweet Fancy's child,
Bid the blythe hours in circling rapture roll :
But thou, fell grave, at last
Hast torn with withering blast
Each wreath that joy had twin'd around my soul.

‘ O that thy ruthless power
 Had in some future hour,
 Some later time, pronounced her fatal doom !
 Perchance with age opprest
 I then had sunk to rest,
 Then follow’d thee, Eliza, to thy tomb.

‘ And is all fled like dreams,
 That fade before Morn’s beams ?
 In vain these eyes each grace, each charm, require,
 That once thy form around
 With youth and beauty crown’d,
 Awaked pure love and kindled young desire.

‘ No more thy lips disclose
 Sweets of the opening rose,
 No more thy dark locks float upon the wind ;
 And in the grave below,
 Cold lies that breast of snow,
 Which Virtue chasten’d, and which Taste refin’d.—

* * * * *

‘ How oft I turn to view
 This lock of auburn hue,
 Once wont to shade thy breast of snow.
 At sight of pledge so dear,
 How starts the trembling tear,
 Yet does the trembling tear some sad relief bestow.

* * * * *

‘ But thou, blest shade, on high,
 Who in th’ empyreal sky
 Dost tread the fields of endless joy and love,
 O let thy prayers prevail,
 That from this body frail
 My spirit soon may soar to thee above !

‘ There in the realms of light,
 With purest ether bright,
 To sounds of bliss our raptur’d lyres shall wake ;
 While crown’d with blushing flowers
 From never fading bowers,
 Thro’ the third heaven our onward march we take.’

The following, from the Sicilian of Meli, has considerable merit in the original, and much beauty in the translation :

“ Ye shadowy forms ! night’s offspring ! ye that breathe
 Your darkening horrors round these forests deep,
 And in these caves your silent dwelling keep ;

O that

O that I here amidst your glooms might breathe
 Th' expiring sigh!—and when the guilty maid
 Shall wonder where my lowly tomb is laid,
 O say that here “life’s fitful fever o’er,”
 He, whom her scorn hath kill’d, now finds repose.
 Haply across her cheek some tear may steal,
 Yet deem not that the tear from pity flows;
 For pity sure that breast can never feel:
 Her eyes will weep, because there lives no more
 One who for her with hopeless flames will burn,
 And mourn with fruitless sighs, and love without return.”

We cannot help observing, however, that in various of the poems here translated, we discover a *thinness* of meaning that renders their translation no great acquisition to English rhyme, unless the expression, which is in general elegant, is to be duly estimated. To Mr. Walpole, who no doubt wishes to improve in the different languages whence he translated, this last circumstance would be a powerful recommendation.

As might be expected, when we advert to the character of the original authors, we find sometimes passages which are fantastical and highly sombrous. The ensuing verses have in them at the same time beauty mixed with extravagance:

‘ Still through the day’s slow lingering hours,
 With unavailing anguish flow
 These burning sighs, these endless showers,
 That speak my tortur’d bosom’s woe.

‘ And when the pearly car of eve
 In silver radiance rides on high,
 Still does my heart with sorrow heave,
 Still starts the tear-drop in mine eye.

‘ Or should I lay me down at night,
 To woo the balmy power of sleep;
 Thy vision swims before my sight,
 And e’en in dreams for thee I weep.

‘ And when the golden morn appears,
 And blushes in th’ ethereal plain,
 It finds my eyes still bath’d in tears,
 Still weeping for thy cold disdain.’

Here it is fortunate that the mind fastens on the neatness and beauty of the language, and on a certain appropriation that possesses something like a general congruity; for the thought, as it is conducted to its acme, without doubt approaches to excess and absurdity.—Night and sleep were formerly wont to do something for a man, even when in love: but Francisco de Figueroa runs a most wretched gauntlet, and it seems endless, for it is circular. We every day see people running against time, and often overthrown: but this is time, in all its divisions, running against a poor miserable wretch,

wretch, and, with the help of his mistress, blotting out at once all his comforts, while every one wonders how this comes to pass.

In a modest Latin note at the end of the volume, Mr. W. resists, at least for the present, the solicitations of his friends, who urge him to publish some College exercises and some Greek poems. Such things are often curiosities, and in the present instance we are satisfied that we should find elegance: but it is to be remembered that, in reading a composition which solicits our approbation, we are seldom chronologists, and the years of the writer constantly slip out of our minds. Milton published his *Prologues*, and also Greek poetry, but it is the curious only who wish to possess them. The great legislator of the Jews required that the fruit of young trees should be pulled off for some years, and not be allowed immaturally to ripen.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 23. *Sermons on various interesting Subjects*, by the Rev. Joshua Morton, Vicar of Risely, in the County of Bedford, &c. Vol II. 8vo. pp. 385. 8s. Boards. Mawman.

The thirty discourses, that form this volume, are introduced by a short preface, which tells us that they were ‘delivered in different situations, and, as will be easily perceived, to a varied description of hearers. Their studied plainness and brevity leave them without pretensions to laboured discussion. The author stops not either to suppose objections, or to answer them.—This volume, as well as the former, will, he trusts, be found to contain plain scriptural doctrine; and which may at least serve “to stir up the pure minds of sincere Christians of every denomination, by way of remembrance.”—So far Mr. M.’s intention appears to be good; and in like manner refraining from minute ‘objections,’ we must applaud that genuine fervency, and that plain and engaging zeal, with which he urges his hearers to repentance and reformation. The observations which have been already made on his first volume * accord very well with the present.

POLITICS.

Art. 24. *The Discovery of the true and natural Era of Mankind, and the Means of carrying it into Effect. Addressed to His Majesty.* 8vo. pp. 80. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

Art. 25. *Means adequate to the present Crisis, and future Prosperity and Happiness of the Empire; or Proposals for the proper management of public Affairs, and for procuring an immediate, advantageous, secure, and permanent Peace.* 8vo. pp. 124. 5s. Johnson. 1807.

In these tracts, the reasons which the author (George Edwards, Esq. M.D.) has before advanced in favour of peace are again urged, and many of them highly deserve attention. As to the grand schemes which he proposes, we must repeat the confession which we have formerly made on similar occasions, that they are

* See M. Rev. Vol. lxxxi. p. 76.

too sublime for our apprehension. We should hope that, in the paradisaical era here contemplated, simplicity of language would prevail; and we wish that this author would in the mean time anticipate that prevalence: then might the golden days which he promises be less a mystery to us than they now are, owing to the generalities in which he deals, and which render the perusal of his performances irksome and unprofitable. As some of our readers, however, may possess greater acuteness than has fallen to our lot, we shall submit to them the author's own account of the outlines of that grand change to which he looks forwards, and which it requires only the concurrence of the king and the people to introduce:

‘The grand era of national perfection, which is at present proposed, will consist in the following heads being carried into complete effect, and afterward duly maintained and upholden, by their proper means:

‘1. In various executive measures, simple and compound, which will constitute the different aggregate interests of society, or that prosperous, happy, and complete state of a kingdom or empire, which may be called it's national perfection, or proper organization. In the same manner those measures may be called the executive or constituent means of national perfection or organization, or of an era of national perfection.

‘2. An art or ability of practical improvement which is equally adapted to the proper conduct, management, and institution of national perfection, and it's proper era, and of grand enterprises, and business in general.

‘3. A scientific and practical system of general welfare, which, suitably drawn up, may be considered as the explanation, the philosophy, guide and luminary of the era proposed.

‘4. The appropriate and instinctive propensities of general welfare, or national perfection, and it's proposed era. They are the meliorative disposition of man; public and national philanthropy; the principle of rectitude, which causes man to be offended with what is wrong, leads him to rectify it, and to uphold what is right, and which extends to every thing of this description, natural as well as moral; and practical religion, or what may be thus called.’

Dr. E. advertises himself as *the author of the Income or Property Tax*. Is this one of the *Discoveries* of which we should give him joy?

Art. 26. *A Discourse upon the true Character of our Late Proceedings in the Baltic.* Comprizing a few cursory Remarks upon His Majesty's Declarations of the 25th September and 18th December, 1807. By the Author of Cursory Remarks, and of the Appeal to the People on the Necessity of restoring the Spanish Treasure Ships. 3d Edition. 8vo. pp. 145. 5s. Maxwell and Wilson. 1808.

Though we cannot boast of feelings so ardent, and are unable to express ourselves in terms so glowing, as those of the writer of this pamphlet, we regret equally with him any violation of public morality to which our country has unhappily been made a party;

and we are not less convinced than he is, that she was at an infinite distance from that necessity which is supposed to justify the course that has been pursued. We are sorry that with talents such as this author possesses, he did not inveigh less, and argue more: for his tract is calculated rather to rouse and inflame the indignation of those who agree with him in his conclusions, than to establish those conclusions themselves. The more important view of this subject is exhibited in Lord Erskine's Protest: but the just ideas, which are there so well stated, are susceptible of a far greater development than we have yet seen given to them.

It has been said, but certainly without truth, that ninety-nine out of a hundred of the people of this country approved a late too celebrated expedition; the present author gives a different view of that matter:

'The Spanish and Danish plunder, I fear not, will one day be restored; and in the whole empire there are not twenty individuals either interested, or pledged to resist the restitution. And this I say in *the broad and general hope* of a returning public principle and character in England; for as to the immediate object of the present discourse, there is very particular ground and room for English pride and feeling—for consolation, for hope, and even for exultation. I allude to the manner in which the *triumph* of the King's ministers was received by his good cities of London and Westminster;—for, in spite of *cruel necessity* and pious *reluctance*, and the *hard paramount duty* imposed upon them, it had somehow become a triumph; not, doubtless, because it had been procured with the blood of so many brave and loyal subjects of the King's ally, his friend, and brother-in-law, and the conflagration of a peaceful capital.—It had however become a triumph, and his Majesty's garrisons received orders to announce it as a triumph. What answered this good and great metropolis? just, generous interpreter, and, I hope, eternal example of public sentiment and virtue? Not a farthing candle, not a boy's bonfire, not a garret window, not a butcher with his adz and bone, not a drunken fiddler, not a squib, a cry, a song, or a shout, profaned or belied the sterling sense, the grave imperturbable honesty, the genuine feeling and character of the people. The ministers piped, and they would not dance; they would not hear "the voice of the charmer, although he charmed so wisely;" they answered only with sullen indignation to those peals and volleys with which the authors of the expedition were converting into a triumph that *CRUEL, HARD, PAINFUL, IRRESISTIBLE NECESSITY*, with which they had hitherto seduced and lulled the conscience of the country! Oh, memorable day, worthy to survive in history what remains to be achieved of our decline and disgrace, and extinction? Oh day! so truly free and British, and perhaps so near the last day of freedom and of Britain!

It will be difficult for admirers and adherents the most devoted, to vindicate the parties concerned from the just criticism of the ensuing passage:

'If *proper, decent, respectful, and diplomatic language*, could have been found for it, no statesman could have wished the Russian Emperor to have remained unadmonished of the sense with which the English *public* have regarded his conduct, since the battle of Friedland.

land. It is, however, at St. Petersburg, and by ways partaking of personal delicacy, and "considerate regard" for his Imperial Majesty's situation, that wise and temperate Ministers would have communicated their regret, their disappointment, and their remonstrance. They would have known, that an argument and a pleading, which is held *before all the world*, cannot be conciliatory or pacific! That taunts and epigrams, and pleasantries of state, are always unbecoming and always misplaced. They would have avoided all cavil, and all bitterness. TRUE logic, and A PROUD SINCERITY, ARE THE SUBLIME OF A STATE PAPER! Our late magnanimous ally had fallen, but he was to be reclaimed, and not exasperated; to be won back by gentleness and conviction, and not plunged and driven on by unfeeling chicanery: we had but one alternative with the Court of Russia, if we placed any credit in the paper we had received as the secret articles of Tilsit—We were to punish, or to reclaim. To Cronstadt, and to *that fleet*, with which, we may *now, in fact*, and at no great distance of time be menaced, we might have directed our category and our thunder. But if we did not, our intercourse should have been mild and conciliatory. ALL Russia was not *then* against us, nor all mankind. But that we were *intent to insult* the ally we had lost, is not only evident from the pert and biting style of the Westminster Declaration, but from the material confession contained in it, that in the very moment of our burning Copenhagen, we applied to the "PROTECTOR of the NORTH," to mediate for us a peace with his *protégé!!* And what do our Ministers say in excuse, that they did not *mean* an insult to the Emperor, as if any man, in the use of his faculties, could think a greater insult could be offered or devised.'

The author states a suspicion that a fresh *hoax* has been played on our ministry; and that another Mehé de la Touche has, at a most extravagant expence, furnished our foreign secretary with forged secret articles of Tilsit:—on which he observes,

'It would be a curious circumstance, if the real contriver of our plunder at Copenhagen had been Napoleon himself—if it had been owing to papers fabricated by his orders, and communicated at an expence to us, of, perhaps, 40,000l. sterling, by *his spy*, in *our pay and service.*'

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 27. *The Conveniences, Principles, and Method of Keeping Accounts with Bankers in the Country and in London; with accurate Tables adapted to the calculating of Interest Accounts with Ease and Dispatch; and to the discounting of Bills of Exchange, wherein the Table of Interest for one day is extended to one million Pounds, for calculating Interest.—Accounts on the Principle adopted by the London Bankers. Also, other useful and extensive Tables. To which is added, a concise and practical Treatise on Bills of Exchange and Promissory Notes, including Bankers Cash Notes and Checks.—In two parts. By William Lowrie, Sheffield. 8vo. pp. 320. Boards. Longman and Co. London.*

With

With no animated feelings, but from mere duty, we sat down to the apparently cheerless task of perusing some of these pages: but, to our surprize, we found ourselves advance rapidly and with avidity. That we met with pleasure, where we expected drudgery, is partly to be placed to the account of the author, for the merit of his statements; and partly to the effect of something like a mental enchantment, because, in reading the transactions by which thousands and tens of thousands were transferred, we almost fancied ourselves rich. With critics, however, even the dream of wealth lasts not long; and in "the sober certainty" of not possessing promissory notes, inland bills, drafts, &c. &c. we report that the detail and explanation of these momentous things are here very clearly and intelligibly drawn up; and that probably the account, with reference to law, established custom, and real fact, is faithful and accurate: but on this latter point, we are not qualified to speak with certainty.

The Tables of Interest are convenient: containing, up to December 31, the Interest of Sums from 1l. to 1000l. for every day in the year. The interest on a compound sum is found, as is usual, by addition. Thus, to find interest on 1183l. for 334 days;

Interest on	1000	is	45	15	6 $\frac{1}{4}$
on	100		4	11	6
on	83		3	16	2

Interest on 1183 is 54 2 8 $\frac{1}{4}$

Again, to find Interest on 100l. from March 13 to June 13, the operation is;

Interest from March 13 to end of year	is	4	0	3 $\frac{1}{4}$
from June 13	is	2	15	0 $\frac{1}{4}$

Interest for Interval is 1 5 2 $\frac{1}{4}$

In speaking of the accuracy of his Tables, and of the second part, the author says:

'Accuracy being a point of most material consequence in tables of any kind, it may be proper to observe, that these tables were actually calculated upon the manuscript without being transcribed; and that each calculation was dependent on the preceding one throughout, so that no error could arise without its being discovered. But, independently of the proof thus obtained, they have undergone a strict examination; and the author firmly believes, that in the whole of the manuscript, no error exists of greater amount than a farthing; and, before they be printed off, he pledges himself to take the utmost care in examining and correcting every proof sheet from the press: therefore, he thinks he is justified in saying, that *their accuracy may be confidently relied on.*

'From the above advantages, it is hoped that the first part of the work will be found of very extensive utility to all who are, in any way, concerned either with interest accounts, or in discounting bills of exchange; and that the saving of time and trouble resulting from the use thereof, will prove an object of considerable importance.

'THE

‘ THE SECOND PART

of the publication contains a practical treatise on bills of exchange and promissory notes. (including bankers' cash notes and checks,) arranged in a method entirely new, under distinct heads in regular order; explaining in a concise manner, their different forms and uses together with such circumstances as are particularly necessary to be attended to, in every stage of their progress, by all the parties who may be concerned therein.

‘ This part is principally intended to guard the unwary against the irregularities, dangers, and litigations, so frequently arising, either from inattention or the want of necessary information on the subject. For though there are many publications relating to bills of exchange and promissory notes, yet none of them appear to have these ends chiefly in view; being, for the most part, codes of law, calculated in a great measure for the assistance of professional men, rather than collections of practical matters adapted to general use.

‘ The facts have been carefully selected from the most authentic and modern records of the customs, laws, and legal and equitable decisions, by which these instruments are regulated. In short, the second part may be considered as a memorial of the customs and laws by which bills of exchange and promissory notes are governed; divested, as much as may be, of technical terms and unimportant matter; with the addition of many circumstances highly necessary to be attended to in real business, and which are not to be found in books of law.’

A certificate of approbation is added, from various eminent Merchants and Bankers.

Art. 28. *The Origin of Naval Architecture*: a Discourse accommodated to the General Fast. By Philopharos. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Matthews and Leigh.

By this singular title, our curiosity was excited: but, as soon as we read the text (Hebrews xi. 7.) we found that the mighty discovery was to terminate in Noah being the first ship-builder, and in the Ark being the first ship. The reader is indeed reminded of the cause of the Deluge, and exhorted to seek Jesus Christ as the only ark of deliverance: but the composition of this essay possesses little attraction, unless a tissue of wild and disjointed declamation can be agreeable. *Philopharos* must be very vain to imagine that such a discourse as his was accommodated to a fast day, or to any other day.

Art. 29. *A Practical Treatise on the Game of Billiards*; accurately exhibiting the Rules and Practice admitted and established by the first Players of the present Day; and illustrated with a numerous Collection of Cases, explanatory of each of the different Forms of the Game, Calculations for Betting, Tables of Odds, &c. By E. White, Esq. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Miller. 1807.

This treatise will be very useful to those who have not reached, in the art of Billiards, that eminence which intitles them to look down on written rules, and imagined cases, as the conceits of sophists and amusements for children. Without any such pretence, considerable

siderable science is in fact displayed in the essay; and several maxims, not the results of formal demonstration, but the suggestions of experience, are made intelligible to the reader, and to *square with common sense*. An exact scientific treatise,—so various, complicated, and hard of appreciation are the circumstances,—would be attended with enormous difficulties; of this fact Mr. White is aware; and even with regard to his own book, planned on a reduced scale, and for ordinary purposes, he modestly fears that it will be found incomplete.

‘Of the defects (he says) of the Work, the author is more sensible perhaps than any other person can be. Of the merit it may happen to possess, those are best able to judge who have an extensive knowledge of the subject, and who consequently know the difficulty of reducing to a system, a game so diversified as Billiards.

‘The principal obstacles the author has had to encounter in the composition, are, 1st. The difficulty of laying down fixed rules, where the propriety of adopting certain modes of play, in preference to others, must be almost uniformly influenced by the degree of manual dexterity of the player.

‘2nd, The impossibility of reducing theory to practice, by exemplifying general rules, by regular and connected games. In consequence of these, the work is unavoidably less perfect than he could have wished.

‘He has, however, attempted to supply, in some measure, the deficiency by the introduction of select practical cases; and he hopes he has not been altogether unsuccessful.

‘Not having the advantage of written authorities to consult, the author has spared no pains in collecting the opinions and practice of the most celebrated players of the present day.’

The tract contains an explanation of the different kinds of Games of Billiards, with their peculiar Rules, and Tables of the Odds at the several points of the Game, on an assigned proportion between the Skill of the Players; and in order that his readers may be enabled to compute for themselves, Mr. White has added some principles and formulas of computation in the doctrine of chances, extracted from De Moivre. The cases of the game are illustrated and explained by diagrams; and on the whole, although in a fastidious fit of refinement we might demand greater exactness and nicety of discussion, we shall properly discharge our duty by recommending Mr. White’s treatise to students in the art of playing Billiards.

Art. 30. *Canterbury Tales* Vol. V. By Harriet Lee. 8vo. pp. 258. 8s. Boards. Wilkie.

Of Miss Lee’s talents as a writer of this species of novel, we have formerly given our opinion (see M.R. Vol. 38. N. S. p. 331.). Her narratives are perhaps too much dilated, but their tendency is to promote those views of life which are favourable to virtue. This volume includes the Landlady’s Tale, the Friend’s Tale, and the Wife’s Tale; which display ingenuity, are calculated to interest the heart, and from each of which an useful and appropriate moral may be deduced.

Art.

Art. 31. *Mental Recreations.* Four Danish and German Tales, entitled Henry and Amelia; the Noble Suitor; Paladin; the Young Dane. By the Author of a Tour in Zealand*.—Crown 8vo. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin.

In discharging our accustomed duty to the public, we often wish that every novel or romance writer had possessed some easy manual containing the canons of this species of composition, which they might fix in their memories, and by means of which they might regulate their progress in weaving their narration and working up their ornaments. We find that so many, who toil hard to delight and edify the public, are ignorant of the first principles of inventive composition, mere tyros in the syntax of facts and characters, and, being carried away by a fertile imagination, drive with great speed and little discrimination into places, and minds, and situations, that we cannot but regret that they had not at hand such a monitor;—and our wishes in this respect were renewed when we read the above work.

These tales are probably the first inventive essay of the author; who informs us that, being otherwise deeply engaged, he had resorted to this employment 'to recreate his mind.'—If at any future time he should feel the desire of recreation returning, and a liberal wish to make the public sharers in his pleasure, we would presume to admonish him to study the doctrine of probability and consistency: for often, in perusing this small volume, and observing the introduction and re entry of the different characters, we have been led to exclaim "whence come you? How did you get here? You seem to have become a different man since we saw you last." We suspect, however, that these tales are built to a certain degree on incidents in real life, and even the improbabilities foster this idea. When events actually happened as described, an unskilful narrator is not solicitous concerning the mode in which he introduces them: but, trusting to their merit as being true, he exhibits them without preparation. When, however, they are merely the fruit of the imagination, they come forwards in a prepared form; a natural endeavour is made to shade them with delicacy into the surrounding colours of the picture of which they make a part; and fancy is desirous of dressing and presenting her own child in a snitable manner.

In works of this sort, as well as in every other species of writing, nature and consistency are of great value:—but what are we to think of this rhodomontade as the expression of ungovernable love? Says the Count to Anna, "draw me up from this pit of fire, cool my burning soul, remove the thorns that sting my wasted form, and beautify thy faithful friend."—Having grown still more violent, he cries out, "if the heavens were to rain fire; if the earth were to breathe forth clouds of pestilence; if the sea were to rise and dash mountains of water on this spot; if the tempest were to tear this house from its foundation and hurl it down an abyss; I would indulge my desire during the dreadful ruin, and perish in the enjoyment. Prepare, Anna; my soul is more than half way on the road to

* See our Review for December last.

perdition ; I shall not call it back." — If the concluding tale in the volume was written last, we should say with pleasure that this circumstance is much in favour of the author, since it would be a proof that by practice he had improved ; for, compared with the others, it is consistent and natural.

Art. 32. *Ten Minutes' Advice, on the due Management of our Income, on the principles of Economy, with a View to promote our temporal Ease and Comfort.* 16mo. 1s. Hatchard.

A great book is said to be a great evil : but a little book, at the worst, can only be a little evil ; and ten minutes' advice, even if it be not important, cannot be accused of consuming much time. The little book before us, however, must not be dismissed in this cold and negative manner. Though its bulk be small, its matter is weighty, and, in these times, is intitled to peculiar consideration. Incomes which, a few years ago, were regarded as large, now require to be managed with rigid economy, in order to afford to a family the comforts of life. The thoughts here submitted to the attention of gentlemen will be admitted by every one, who keeps a regular account of his expenditure, to be tolerably correct ; and if the items of the several calculations be not such as tally with universal experience, the view of the several departments of expence is sufficiently exact to prove the point which this writer labours to establish. Suppose a family to be composed of a gentleman, his wife, one child grown up and living with them, and an establishment of a man and two female servants ; the income to be 800l. for the husband's life, and the family usually residing in London ; it will be found that the pleasures and comforts, which may at first sight be supposed to be within their reach, cannot be obtained without a due observance of order and economy ; that, under the heads of rent, taxes, wages, &c. a much larger sum is expended than would be assigned by those who do not calculate ; and that, when the expences of a family, which ramify themselves in various ways, are discharged, a very small surplus remains out of the 800l. even when economy is "the order of the day." In course, if economy be not consulted, embarrassment and perhaps ruin must be the consequence. Such is the lesson contained in this little book, and at no period was the advice more wanted.

Art. 33. *Every Adventurer in the present State Lotteries his own Dupe.* With introductory Strictures on the various Speculations published under the specious Titles of national Institutions and Companies. Being a Treatise demonstrating that Gaming in the present Lotteries is more deceitful and disadvantageous, as well as more pernicious to the Morals of the People, than Hazard ; or any other game prohibited by Law. By the Author of *Every Man his own Broker.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Maxwell and Wilson. 1808.

Such is the spirit of Gaming, or of *Speculation*, which possesses the public mind, that no sanguine hopes can be entertained of any great impression being made by the pages before us ; though they present us with glaring facts, and justly expose the folly of those

those individuals who found splendid expectations on the fashionable schemes of chance. They who dream of Fortune, and depend for success on one of her blind throws, will despise calculation, and will not be deterred by the vast odds against them. It is in vain to tell an adventurer that, when he gives 1l. 8s. for a sixteenth of a Lottery ticket, he has purchased a chance not worth more than 12s. 6d., and that if he gains a sixteenth of a 20l. prize, he loses 16s. The following *calculation of the odds* in the present Lottery is exhibited:

‘ The probability against gaining one of the prizes of

£20,000 is 8332 to 1 nearly.

10,000 the same

5,000 6249 to 1

1,000 1249 1

500 832 1

100 555 1

50 416 1

21 24 1

15 4 1

‘ Against any prize at all, 3 1 nearly.

‘ Three *sixteenth* shares, at £1 : 8 : 0, cost . . . £4 4 0

‘ For one drawn a prize of £20, you will receive

at the offices 1 4 0

Loss £3 0 0

‘ Do you subscribe to Solomon’s maxim—“that the battle is not to the strong, neither the race to the swift, but time and chance happen to all men?” If so, look attentively to the above calculations, and let the present lottery be drawn for fools, but not for you.’

The author is perfectly aware of the pernicious effects which arise from the sale of 8th and 16th shares, which present temptations to the lower orders of the people. On the *humbugs* lately advertised in the form of Public Companies, he bestows the ridicule which they merit.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 34. *Jesus the Son of Joseph*: delivered before the General Baptist Assembly at their annual Meeting in Worship Street, London, May 19, 1807. By A. Bennet. 12mo. 1s. Johnson.

‘ This preacher pleads the call of duty for delivering himself without reserve on the present subject, and declares that he is indifferent to the frowns that he may excite while he is fortified by a good conscience. Contrary to the general opinion, he labours to shew that ‘ Jesus is the natural and legitimate son of Joseph, which (he says) must have been the case if he was the son or descended from the stock of David, for the Jews kept no genealogies in the female line.’ We are also reminded that Christ is in several places called the carpenter’s son, and that he often terms himself the son of man, Mr. Bennet

quotes.

quotes Mr. Stone's Sermon, and in part avails himself of that writer's arguments against the miraculous conception.

In the Dedication, we are informed, on the authority of Dr. Priestley, that the disbelief of this doctrine was not confined to the Jewish christians, but probably extended to the majority of the Gentile converts in the time of Justin Martyr: but, if this were the fact, how are we to account for the following Question and Answer in that Father's *Questiones & Responsiones ad Orthodoxos*?

ΕΡΩΤΗΣΙΣ ξζ (67) Επειδὴ ὁ Ησαΐας εἰς τὸν δεσπότην Κύριον προφητεύων φησὶ, τὴν γυναιὴν αὐτοῦ τίς διηγήσεται; ἐπὶ δυσδιηγήτῃ ἄρα ἢ ἀδιηγήτῃ τῇ γυναικί, καὶ ἐπὶ τῇ θεότητι, τῇ σαρκὶ ταύτῃ ἐκληπλίον τὴν λέξιν;

ΑΠΟΚΡΙΣΙΣ. Ἡ μὴ κατὰ σάρκα γέννησις τοῦ Χριστοῦ γεναλογεῖται, καὶ ὁ τρόπος ταύτης ἐν γραφικῇ διηγήσει καταγγέλλεται· ἐκ πνεύματος γὰρ αἴγλι καὶ τῇ παρθένῃ Μαρίας· ἢ διὰ κατὰ τὴν θεότητα αὐτῆς γέννησίς ἐστιν ἀγενεαλόγητος. κ. τ. λ.

We offer no comment, because we mean not to enter into the controversy.

Art. 35. *The Uncertainty of the Morrow.* The Substance of a Sermon preached at Fulham Church, in the Afternoon of Sunday the 13th of September 1807, on Occasion of the late awful Fire in the Premises of John Ord, Esq., by which his principal Gardener was burnt to Death. By the Rev. John Owen, M.A., Curate of Fulham, Middlesex. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Of the melancholy event recorded in this title, a very serious and impressive improvement is made by the preacher; who, with a deep feeling of the importance of religion to dying men, unites those popular talents which are necessary to enforce the due consideration of it on his fellow-creatures.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Agrestis seems not be aware that we never rely on anonymous communications. If he will trust his address in a letter to *the Editor of the M. R.* at Mr. Becket's, he may depend on secrecy, and shall receive a private reply.

We are always glad to hear from sensible and liberal correspondents: but *Veritas* will easily conceive that we have not time for protracted debate.

The work mentioned in a letter signed *J. Sim* will not be overlooked.

We shall endeavour to accomplish the object suggested by our friend B. Z.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1808.

ART. I. *Mr. Coxe's History of the House of Austria.*

[*Art. concluded from p. 177.*]

WE have pleasure in returning to the consideration of this valuable work; and we are persuaded that the close of this article, which must terminate our view of it, will be regretted by those of our readers who attach adequate value to the instructive lessons of history, when aided by the judicious reflections of the historian; and who may not have an opportunity of referring to the volumes themselves for renewed and more complete gratification. We are persuaded, however, that no good historic library will be unprovided with Mr. Coxe's book, nor any lover of this branch of reading be unacquainted with his details.

As we have adverted so frequently to the thirty years' war, we cannot omit to insert the author's comprehensive summary of its consequences, as they affected the authority of the descendants and successors of that prince, to whose unrelenting intolerance it owed its origin and long continuance: propensities which prove frequently not less pernicious to those who indulge them, than distressing in their operation on their victims:

Under Leopold I. the scanty influence in Germany possessed by former Emperors was considerably reduced by the recent changes, as well in its constitution, as in the situation and interests of its component states.

The diet, from being temporary, and convoked only at the will of the emperor, was rendered permanent. Leopold had assembled the German states at Ratisbon, for the purpose of obtaining succours against the Turks, and would, like his predecessors, have dissolved the meeting as soon as he had attained his object; but this design was prevented by the princes, who were not inclined to relinquish the privilege secured to them by the peace of Westphalia, of sharing in the election of an Emperor or King of the Romans, and assisting in the arrangement of the capitulation. For this purpose they formed a Princely, in imitation of the Electoral, Union, and extorted from

the Emperor, as the price of their succours, a promise not to dissolve the diet, till these and the other points left undecided in the peace of Westphalia were finally settled. Accordingly, after the grant of succours, the states proceeded to arrange the capitulation; but the electors being unwilling to admit the claims of the princes, no specific plan could be adjusted, and the question was perpetually adjourned. In consequence of these and other delays, the diet was unusually prolonged, and at last virtually rendered permanent by a decree, authorising the princes and states to levy taxes on their subjects for defraying the expence of sending legations or deputies. Hence the diet, instead of an assembly composed of the emperor, electors, and princes in person, became a mere convocation of representatives, similar to a congress of ministers, to which the emperor sent his commissary, the electors and princes their envoys, and the towns a particular or common agent. Thus the emperor was unable to prevent disagreeable discussions by dissolution, or the representatives to decide any question, without previous reference or continual appeals to their principals. Thus the usual tardiness of their proceedings was aggravated, and the influence of the chief diminished, while greater opportunities were afforded for the interference of foreign powers. The right also, granted to the Protestants by the peace of Westphalia, of voting as a separate body, and preventing the decision of a majority in all matters which were considered as affairs of religion, afforded a constant pretext to embarrass the measures of their chief, and enabled them even to oppose the levies of troops and subsidies, by pleading the privilege of religion.

Above all, the imperial prerogatives were circumscribed by the privilege which each prince and state enjoyed, of concluding alliances with each other, or with foreign powers, without reference to the great body of the empire. This mischievous privilege threatened to reduce Germany to the same situation as before the suppression of private warfare; for the greater princes maintained standing armies, in order to take advantage of the weakness or embarrassments of their neighbours, or subjugate the imperial or independent towns situated within their respective territories. The warlike bishop of Munster, by uniting with Austria, reduced his capital Munster, which had long refused to acknowledge his sovereignty. Erfurth, which had hitherto enjoyed and improved its extensive trade under the protection of Saxony, was subjugated by the elector of Mentz, with the assistance of a French force; Magdeburgh was deprived of its independence by the House of Brandenburg; Brunswick by its dukes; and the cities of Bremen and Cologne were only saved from the attacks of the Swedes and the elector, the first, by the interference of the Emperor, the last by that of the United Provinces. From this mischievous privilege also arose the League of the Rhine, which, more than any other cause, contributed to strengthen the power of France, and became the foundation of a dangerous schism in the empire, which for a time palsied all the efforts of its chief.

The author next states some of the more indirect effects of this calamitous contest, on the imperial power :

‘ The internal resources of the empire were considerably reduced by the decline of commerce, and the diminution of the towns, in number, wealth, and consequence. We read with surprise of the splendour and population which distinguished the German cities at the commencement of the sixteenth century, when it was a proverb, That the kings of Scotland would gladly be lodged like the common burghers of Nuremberg; when Nuremberg contained 52,000 souls, Lubec armed 5,000 shopkeepers and porters to suppress a commotion of the burghers, and when Strasburgh and Aix la Chapelle each mustered 20,000 men capable of bearing arms. We are no less astonished when we consider the strength and resources of the Hanseatic League, which extended its ramifications to every country of Europe, concentrated in Germany the trade of the North and the East, and contested the mastery of the Baltic with the united fleets of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. But of all this splendour and strength little more remained than the recollection. The Hanseatic League, from seventy-two opulent towns, was reduced to the three cities of Lubec, Hamburg, and Bremen, and these were watched and circumscribed by the jealousy of the neighbouring states. The population and wealth of the Imperial cities had been exhausted by the thirty years war; many never rose from their ashes, others were appropriated by the neighbouring princes; the whole trading system of Germany was diverted into other channels, by the fall of the Venetian commerce, the establishment of new sources of trade in England, Portugal, and the Netherlands, and the shutting up of the navigation of the Rhine by the Dutch. The decline of these towns was hastened by the establishment of manufactures, under the patronage of the neighbouring sovereigns, nobles, and states, and still more by the increasing weight of perpetual taxes, which augmented with the diminution of their resources. Their depression was a fatal blow to the Imperial power; for from these towns, which found a sure protection under the shelter of the throne, preceding emperors had drawn their most effectual support against the greater princes, and from their resources and population had derived the means of maintaining internal tranquillity, or waging external war.

‘ From this rapid sketch of the state of Germany, we may calculate the trifling assistance which Leopold could draw from so heterogeneous a mass, even when not influenced by any common motive of opposition. Still less, therefore, may the Imperial dignity be considered as an essential weight in the scale of Austria, when we recollect, that the majority of the princes and states had not yet shaken off that jealousy and dread which had been inspired by the despotism and intolerance of Charles and Ferdinand the Second; and still regarded France as their great support against the encroachment of their chief. Hence, although the states willingly furnished succours against the Turks, they were not inclined to concur with the emperor in a war against France, and Louis the Fourteenth exercised an authority in the empire, which was more implicitly obeyed than that of Leopold himself.’

Louis XIV. who had dexterously availed himself of the mischiefs which Ferdinand II. had inflicted on his illustrious

House by his intolerance, towards the close of his reign rendered his own name universally odious by copying the inauspicious example of the Imperial bigot, and furnished to posterity an irrefragable proof of the littleness of his mind and the narrowness of his views. The promoter of the arts and sciences exhibited himself as the dupe of priests and devotees, and the model of refinement and polished manners transformed himself into a savage persecutor. Ambitious of universal dominion, he impaired the strength of his own kingdom to a degree which no acquisition of foreign territory could balance, and raised a spirit among his neighbours more mighty to oppose his lawless designs than the most powerful armies :

‘ Inflamed by superstitious fervour, Louis aspired no less to shackle the consciences and the persons of his subjects, than to awe the other states of Europe. Hitherto he had sullenly confirmed the toleration granted by Henry the fourth to the Huguenots, from respect to the remonstrances of Colbert ; but after the death of that great minister, he revoked the edict of Nantz, and followed the revocation with persecutions, which recal the memory of the barbarities exercised against the Protestants in the early stages of the Reformation. Their ministers were banished, their churches destroyed, liberty of conscience abolished, children torn from their parents to be brought up in the catholic religion, every species of severity adopted to prevent adult persons from seeking that freedom of worship in another land which was denied in their own, and the plans of jesuits and monks executed with all the military despotism of the relentless and unfeeling Louvois. The effects of this intolerance were similar to those which followed the fatal persecutions in Bohemia. Notwithstanding all the vigilance of civil and military tyranny, above 500,000 persons found means to emigrate, carrying with them their riches, their industry, their manufactures ; and, what was still more fatal to France, spreading throughout every country of Europe where they found an asylum, that detestation with which they were themselves animated by the cruelties of their persecuting sovereign.’

The subtle conduct of the Polish monarch, the paltry behaviour of the unworthy Austrian Prince, and the subsequent ingratitude of the Court of Vienna to the country to which it owed the most signal obligation, induce us to insert the following relation concerning the siege of Vienna by the Turks :

‘ The rapid and unexpected approach of the powerful army of Sobieski confounded the Vizir, whose troops were greatly discouraged and reduced by the efforts of the siege. At the moment when he had been repulsed in a last and desperate attempt to carry the town by storm, his consternation was increased by the vigorous attack of the Christian army, in which the Polish Monarch and the Imperial General vied in skill and bravery, and their respective troops in coolness and intrepidity. He suddenly drew off his forces in the night, and fled

fled rather than retreated with such precipitation, that his vanguard reached the Raab before the ensuing evening. When the Turks gave way, the Christians burst into their lines, and on the dawn of morning were equally gratified and astonished by the booty which had been abandoned by the enemy. They found a camp stored with all the luxuries of the east, all the tents, baggage, ammunition, and provisions; an hundred and eighty pieces of artillery, the ensigns of the vizir's authority, and even a standard which was supposed to be the sacred banner of Mahomet. The magnitude of these spoils induced Sobieski, with his characteristic pleasantry, to write to his queen, "The grand vizir has left me his heir, and I inherit millions of ducats. When I return, I shall not be met with the reproach of the Tartar wives, 'You are not a man because you are come back without booty.'"

'The King of Poland, to whom the victory was principally attributed, received the warmest and most unfeigned congratulations on the field of battle. On the ensuing morning he entered Vienna, and as he passed through the camp and the ruins of the town, was surrounded by the inhabitants, who hailed him with the titles of Father and Deliverer, struggled to kiss his feet, to touch his garment or his horse, and testified their gratitude by marks of affection which rose almost to adoration. With difficulty he penetrated through a grateful people, to the cathedral, and threw himself on his knees to thank the God of battles for the recent victory. After dining in public, he returned amidst the same concourse to his camp, and with truth exulted in declaring, that this day was the happiest of his life.

'The entrance of Leopold was far different from that of the Polish monarch. He keenly felt the humiliations which had accompanied his departure; the clamours and execrations of the populace still resounded in his ears; no honours, no crowds, no acclamations marked his passage; at every step which brought him nearer to his capital, he had the mortification to hear the sound of cannon, which proclaimed the triumph of Sobieski. He shrunk from honours which he knew were undeserved, or which he dreaded to see withheld. With mingled emotions of joy and sorrow, he beheld the works of the besiegers, and the desolation of the city. To return thanks to heaven for his providential deliverance, he repaired to the cathedral, not as a prince in triumph, but on foot, carrying a taper in his hand, and with all the marks of humility. A heart far more phlegmatic than that of Leopold, must have deeply felt the difference between the unbridled effusions of gratitude and joy which had welcomed Sobieski, and the faint, reluctant, studied homage, which accompanied his own return. In the anguish of his soul, he vented his indignation against count Sinzendorf, to whose sinister advice he attributed his calamities and unpopularity, and reproached him with such bitterness, that the unfortunate minister within a few hours fell a sacrifice to chagrin.

'These feelings overcame all sentiments of admiration or gratitude. Instead of hurrying to the Polish camp to pour forth his acknowledgements to the conqueror, he seemed anxious to evade a meeting.

and made enquiries whether an elective monarch had ever been admitted to an interview with an emperor, and in what manner he should be received. "With open arms," replied the duke of Lorraine, who was disgusted with his pride and apathy, and alive only to sensations of reverence for the deliverer of Vienna; but Leopold wanted liberality of sentiment to bear an obligation, and settled the formalities of the interview with the punctilious spirit of a herald. The two monarchs met on horseback, between the Austrian and Polish armies. The emperor plainly clad and meanly mounted, stiff and awkward in his address and deportment; Sobieski, habited as on the day of battle, rode a superb courser richly caparisoned, and the natural gracefulness of his mein was dignified by a consciousness of his former triumphs and recent victory. On a concerted signal the two sovereigns advanced, saluted each other at the same moment, and embraced. The conversation was short and formal. Sobieski, frank, cordial, and tremblingly alive to fame and honour, was disgusted with his punctilious reception; he cut short the faint, embarrassed, and reluctant expressions of gratitude which Leopold was endeavouring to articulate, and after a second embrace withdrew to his tent, leaving to his chancellor Zaluski to accompany the Emperor in reviewing those troops who had defeated the Turks, and saved the House of Austria.'

It is afterward justly observed by Mr. Coxe that

'The peace of Carlovitz forms a memorable æra in the History of the House of Austria and of Europe. Leopold secured Hungary and Sclavonia, which for a period of almost two hundred years had been occupied by the Turks, and consolidated his empire by the important acquisition of Transylvania. By these possessions, joined to the change of government, he annihilated one great source of those discontents and factions which had hitherto rendered Hungary little more than a nominal sovereignty. At the same time the Turkish Empire lost nearly half its possessions in Europe, and from this diminution of its territorial advantages, the Ottoman power, which once threatened universal subjugation, ceased to be formidable to Christendom.'

Our readers will recollect that, for the victory which procured this glorious peace, the Imperial commander, Prince Eugene, was put under arrest at Vienna, because the battle was fought against the preposterous orders of the Emperor. It is but justice to add, however, that the mind of Leopold, destitute as it was of right feelings, revolted against this absurd punctilio, and placed his illustrious subject higher than ever in his favour.

Mr. Coxe's account of the plans pursued and the measures taken by Louis XIV., in order to secure the Spanish succession in his family, well deserves the attention of those who look up to diplomatic employments. It is very able and elaborate; and if it be chargeable with any fault, it is one
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of which most similar details partake, namely that of wholly ascribing to kings and ministers those circumstances which are in a great part owing to the course of events. We must remark, however, that the history of the grand contest to which this conduct of Louis gave rise, though sufficiently animated in its commencement, appears to us to languish as it advances; and in this part of his work Mr. Coxe is certainly not a Davila: but though it possesses not all the interest of which it was susceptible, and is less finished than it might have been, it strongly exemplifies the inefficiency and imbecility which are the characteristics of coalitions.

Had the confederates in the recent campaigns in Flanders and Holland been commanded by a Marlborough and an Eugene, Britain in the late contest would not have received an accession of naval glory alone, and the page of history would have been differently occupied. The battle of Blenheim cannot occur without fixing the attention of the British reader; who in reflecting on it must be sensible how much the fate of states depends on skill in military chiefs. Able commanders call forth armies, create occasions, and know how to supply defects: but let all else be complete, if the command be placed in incompetent hands, it will avail nothing, but defeat, disgrace, and ruin must ensue. Painfully recollecting our miscarriages in the revolutionary war, into which (with all due deference to Mr. Coxe we say it) we were in far too much haste to plunge, the mind seeks relief by recurring to past glories; and this melancholy gratification may also lead to instruction, if we will take the pains of comparing the different circumstances which prepared the several events. This train of reflection would induce us to insert Mr. Coxe's account of that memorable battle, which gave such lustre to the arms of Britain, if we had sufficient space for a detail which is already so well known.

At a period in which the extension of toleration has been adjudged in this country an offence sufficiently grave to sanction hazardous and extraordinary measures, such as have been productive of distractions in our councils and disunion in the nation, we are tempted to point to a dissimilar policy which prevailed in Austria more than a century ago, being soon also to advert to a proceeding of the same court directly the reverse of that which Britain has lately exhibited, to the derogation of the national character in the eyes of foreigners, and in contradiction to every suggestion of sound policy:

Generous, complacent, and benevolent, Joseph I. found no pleasure greater than that of hearing and relieving the distressed. He had such an aversion to flattery, that he suppressed even the compliments.

compliments generally introduced into birth-day odes: "I come," he said on these occasions, "not to listen to praises, but to hear music." Though educated in the midst of a bigotted court, and under the auspices of a superstitious father, Joseph was tolerant both in principle and practice. He experienced the most heartfelt satisfaction in alleviating the restraints which his predecessors had imposed on his protestant subjects. He banished from his presence those who had excited the former persecutions, and forbade the catholic priests to employ in their sermons their customary invectives against other religious sects. Yet this liberality of sentiment was not accompanied with lukewarmness towards the faith in which he was educated, nor even with the slightest neglect of religious rites.'

In the same spirit was the conduct of his successor, on the occasion of his coronation as king of Hungary:

' In arranging at the diet the complicated and difficult questions of religion and government, which agitated the minds of all parties, in a country long torn by intestine commotions, and among a people jealous of their rights and privileges, Charles VI acted with becoming wisdom and due moderation. He rejected the presumptuous advice of those among his counsellors who represented it as beneath the dignity of an Emperor and King of Spain to submit to limitations of his authority, and readily confirmed the immunities, both civil and religious, which had been granted by the pacification of Zatmar. In reply to the remonstrances of the catholic clergy against the edict of toleration, he said, "although I approve your zeal, and am ready to defend the church of Rome at the peril of my life, yet justice, policy, and my own interest, require that I should not leave my protestant subjects without a ray of consolation."

When describing the close of the succession-war, Mr. Coxe's language is particularly animated; and he seems in a due degree to feel the mortification with which that part of our history must always affect every honest Briton:

' By the disastrous events of five campaigns, and the three desperate defeats of Ramilies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, the barrier which had hitherto defied all the efforts of Europe, was broken through; and the fortresses, the result of such art, expence, and labour, diverted, but could not resist, the tide of war. The army, which had risen like the hydra from its repeated discomfitures, and the generals who had exhausted in vain all the resources of the military science, were driven to the last line of the formidable frontier. That stupendous colossus, which had overshadowed and overawed the world, was smitten to its foundations; the loss of a single battle, or the capture of a single fortress, would have opened a passage into the defenceless provinces of France, and scarcely left the monarch, who, for half a century, had given law without controul, a place of security even within his own capital.

' The continuance of the same vigour, skill, and unanimity for a single campaign would have secured to the allies all the objects of the Grand Alliance, and all the advantages for which they had made
such

such numerous sacrifices and such astonishing exertions. But unfortunately their hopes were frustrated by that principle of dissolution which is inherent in all great confederacies; and it is with the deepest concern we reflect, that England was the primary cause of this change, so fatal to Europe and so disastrous to the civilized world.'

The events of the unsuccessful reign of Charles VI. are detailed by the historian with great minuteness, and he gives a full and connected account of that prince's wars and alliances: while, by the aid of the communications of St. Saphorin, and the dispatches of our envoy Robinson, he makes us acquainted with the characters and intrigues of the ministers, and the secret springs of those measures which, towards the close of this reign, ravished from the House of Austria so many of its possessions.

The career of the French minister of this period, the pacific Fleury, is described by Mr. Coxe in more glowing and lofty terms than have usually been applied to it.

' France, at this period, had attained an enormous preponderancy among the powers of Europe, not only from a dread of her strength and resources, but from the character and system of the prime minister.

' Cardinal Fleury was in the 84th year of his age; he was of a circumspect and cautious temper, and possessed the art of winning mankind by an unaffected air of candour and simplicity. His great prudence and sagacity enabled him to distinguish the precise bounds to which he could push his intrigues, and to conceal his designs under the semblance of moderation; his progress was, therefore, more dangerous, as it was silent and unobserved. From temper and principle he was anxious to maintain his country in peace; but, as his great aim was to remove every obstruction to the ascendancy of France, he directed all his efforts to divide, though he avoided provoking, the other powers of Europe.

' In pursuit of his plan, he had imperceptibly brought the Emperor to an entire dependence on France, and had more reduced the house of Austria by his intrigues, than his predecessors by the sword. Although France had guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, yet he looked forward to the prospect of dividing the Austrian dominions between the two Archduchesses; and thus hoped to diminish the weight of a power which had hitherto been the rival, and might again become the enemy, of the house of Bourbon. With this view he filled all the courts of Europe with his intrigues, and endeavoured to isolate the house of Austria, by uniting her enemies, and paralysing the efforts of her friends.'

The view which the author presents of the state of Europe, at this time, will greatly assist the reader in following the course of events during the war of Maria Theresa:

• France wholly governed the councils of the Porte ; and, by means of reciprocal treaties and guarantees, secured a pretext for her interference in the future disputes of the Turks with the Christian powers.

• She had effected an essential change in the administration of Sweden, by removing the ministers who were favourable to England ; and maintained the king in total subjection, by swaying the parties which agitated that distracted government. By her influence, also, the Swedes were induced to arm on the side of Finland, and to make an offensive alliance with the Porte.

• Notwithstanding the subsidiary treaty, which Denmark had concluded with England, France endeavoured to alienate the court of Copenhagen from the house of Austria ; and the fluctuating conduct of the Danish cabinet seemed to favour her views. With their consent, she dispatched a squadron into the Baltic, under a frivolous pretence ; which, parading through the Sound, intimidated the enemies, and encouraged the friends of France.

• Russia, alarmed on one side with the preparations of the Swedes, and on the other kept in suspense by the protracted negotiation with the Turks, was inclined to temporize ; and unwilling to provoke the resentment of France, unless a grand combination of the European states could be formed, capable of resisting the alarming power of the house of Bourbon. Advanced in age, and declining in health, Anne was also too much embarrassed with domestic arrangements to take an active or principal part in the affairs of Europe. She had recently given her niece Anne, the princess of Mecklenburg, in marriage to Anthony Ulric, prince of Brunswick Wolfenbittel, and was employed in settling the succession to her dominions, under the dictates of an imperious favourite, who was ambitious to direct the helm of government, after her death, with the same authority as during her life.

• Although Augustus the Third owed his crown to the united efforts of the Emperor and Russia ; yet, as King of Poland, he was unable to suppress the domestic cabals excited by the intrigues of France, or to turn the united forces of this kingdom in favour of the house of Austria.

• Germany was divided in interests, and distracted by parties. France had gained many of the catholic princes, and in particular the elector of Bavaria, with the hopes of sharing in the Austrian succession. She also artfully availed herself of the resentment entertained by the king of Prussia against the Emperor for his prevarication in regard to the succession of Berg and Juliers. Charles, notwithstanding his solemn promises, was desirous to secure the whole succession of the Elector Palatine to Charles Theodore, prince of Sulzbach ; and while France affected to co-operate in this arrangement, and had even guaranteed the succession, she entered into a secret negotiation with Frederic William, and lured him with the promise of securing to him the whole duchy of Berg, except the town of Dusseldorf. By these intrigues she detached Frederic William from the house of Austria ; and, by fomenting his prejudices against the house of Hanover, she succeeded in weakening and dividing the efforts of the protestant body.

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‘ The king of Sardinia was indebted to the mediation of France, for the termination of his disputes with the Emperor, and for a greater accession of territory than he could have acquired either from the fears or the gratitude of Charles. He was therefore, from these circumstances, as well as from the preponderance of the house of Bourbon in Italy, and the exhausted state of Austria, in entire subjection to the dictates of the French cabinet.

‘ John the Fifth, king of Portugal, began to lose that spirit and vigour of intellect which had distinguished the former part of his reign; his faculties were impaired by a stroke of apoplexy, and in his character and conduct he blended the extremes of devotion and licentiousness. Scrupulously adhering to the ceremonies of the church, the bigotted monarch paid as much attention to the arrangement of a procession, and to the election of an abbot, as to the most important concerns of government. Hence the whole power fell into the hands of confessors and friars; immense sums were expended in religious establishments, instead of being employed in the maintenance of an army and navy, and Portugal daily declined in power and consideration.

‘ Spain was involved in a war with England, on account of the depredations in America; and, alarmed for the safety of her colonial possessions, importunately required the interference of France, and looked forward for the active assistance which she was openly encouraged to expect.

‘ The United Provinces still exhibited the same weak and divided government; alarmed at the increasing preponderance of France, yet without vigour to resist her encroachments; dreading the interference of England in favour of the prince of Orange, who had espoused the daughter of George the Second; and though without any other ally, to whom they could look for support, considering the war with Spain as wholly foreign to their interests. They were irritated against the Emperor for the haughty conduct of his ministers, and involved in interminable disputes concerning the commercial regulations of the Barrier Treaty.

‘ England, the only power capable of consolidating a grand combination against France, was engaged in the prosecution of the Spanish war, which had been excited by the clamours of the merchants, and the madness of the people, wild with dreams of conquest and plunder. But the illusion had been dissipated by the ill success of their armaments, and by the hostile preparations of France. The nation was distracted by contending parties; the cabinet divided; and the minister, becoming more and more unpopular, was compelled to pursue a temporizing policy, ill adapted to the circumstances of the times. Numerous schemes of alliance and co-operation against France were formed; but they were counteracted by the discordant views of the cabinet, and the inveterate antipathy of George the Second to the house of Brandenburg, whose concurrence was indispensably necessary for the establishment of a permanent confederacy against the house of Bourbon.

‘ In this situation of Europe, the Emperor, debilitated by his recent disasters, was bound by France with the most galling fetters.

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Her numerous partisans were continually representing to him the weakness of his exhausted country, and the danger of provoking the resentment of so formidable a power. His court was beset by her spies, every motion was watched, and Fleury made urgent complaints whenever the duke of Lorraine, who indignantly bore this state of dependence, had an interview with the British minister.

‘ This humiliating subjection chagrined the most upright and independent ministers of the conference ; and counts Staremberg and Harrach in particular, lamented the influence of France in the councils of their sovereign. They considered the Maritime Powers as the natural allies of the house of Austria, and looked forward to the renewal of the former connection, as the only means to deliver the house of Austria from dependence, and to recover her ascendancy in Europe. They considered the right which France enjoyed to interfere in the affairs of Germany, as guarantee of the treaty of Munster, as the greatest evil to the Empire, and were apprehensive that having been permitted to add her guaranty to her mediation in the treaty with the Porte, she would avail herself of that pretext to interfere in all future disputes with the Turks.

‘ The Emperor himself felt and appreciated his danger ; he regretted the precipitation with which he had concluded the preliminaries at Vienna in 1737 with La Beaume, and still more his acceptance of the mediation and guaranty of France in the treaty of Belgrade. He saw that his ministers had been deceived by the artifices of Villeneuve, and that the peace had been dictated at Paris. He was sensible that the French, by their manœuvres with the Porte, were delaying the execution of the treaty, and was aware of their schemes for the division or dismemberment of his succession. He considered a war between France and England as inevitable, and foresaw the destruction of the house of Austria, should England be crushed by the united efforts of the house of Bourbon.’

From the papers of the British minister Mr. Robinson, Mr. Coxe composes this sketch of the heroine of the war of 1742 :

‘ Maria Theresa had not completed her twenty-fourth year, when, in virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction, she succeeded to all the dominions of the house of Austria. Her person was formed to wear a crown, and her mind to give lustre to her exalted dignity ; she possessed a commanding figure, great beauty, animation, and sweetness of countenance, a pleasing tone of voice, fascinating manners ; and united feminine grace with a strength of understanding, and an intrepidity above her sex. During her father’s illness, the young princess was exposed to great danger, in consequence of her advanced pregnancy ; but sufficiently recovered her spirits the day after his death, to give audience to the ministers of state, and to assume the government.’

Having stated the opposition that was preparing against the young Queen, Mr. C. thus briefly observes on her situation and behaviour :

‘ On surveying this deplorable state of affairs, the cause of Maria Theresa appeared wholly desperate: attacked by a formidable league, Vienna menaced with an instant siege, abandoned by all her allies, without treasure, without a sufficient army, without able ministers, she seemed to have no other alternative than to receive the law from her most inveterate enemies.’

We deem no apology necessary for here inserting the subsequent detail:

‘ But this great princess now displayed a courage truly heroic, and assisted by the subsidies of Great Britain, and animated by the zeal of her Hungarian subjects, rose superior to the storm.

‘ Soon after her accession she had conciliated the Hungarians, by reviving, with the exception of the thirty-first article, the celebrated decree of Andrew the Second, which had been abolished by Leopold; and at her coronation had received from her grateful subjects, the warmest demonstrations of loyalty and affection. Mr. Robinson, who was an eye-witness of this ceremony, has well described the impression made on the surrounding multitude. “ The coronation on the 25th was *leste*, magnificent, and well ordered. The Queen was all charm; she rode gallantly up the Royal Mount *, and defied the four corners of the world with the drawn sabre, in a manner to shew she had no occasion for that weapon to conquer all who saw her. The antiquated crown received new graces from her head, and the old tattered robe of St. Stephen became her as well as her own rich habit, if diamonds, pearls, and all sorts of precious stones can be called cloaths.”

“ *Illam quicquid agit quoquo vestigia vertit,
Componit furtim, subsequiturque decor.*”

‘ An air of delicacy, occasioned by her recent confinement, increased the personal attractions of this beautiful princess; but when she sat down to dine in public, she appeared still more engaging without her crown; the heat of the weather, and the fatigues of the ceremony, diffused an animated glow over her countenance; while her beautiful hair flowed in ringlets over her shoulders and bosom. These attractions, and the firmness of her mind, kindled the zeal and enthusiasm of that brave and high-spirited people, and to them she turned as to her principal recourse. The grey-headed politicians of the court of Vienna in vain urged, that the Hungarians, who, when Charles first proposed the Pragmatic Sanction, had declared they were accustomed to be governed by men, and would not consent to a female succession, would seize this opportunity of withdrawing from the Austrian domination. But Maria Theresa formed a different judgment, and her opinion was justified by the event. She felt that a people ardent for liberty, and distinguished by elevation of soul

‘ * Near Presburgh is a barrow or tumulus, called the Royal Mount, which the new sovereign ascends on horseback, and waves a drawn sword towards the four cardinal points.’

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and energy of character, indignantly reject the mandates of a powerful despot, but would shed their blood in support of a defenceless queen, who, under the pressure of misfortune, appealed to them for succour.

‘ Having summoned the States of the Diet to the castle, she entered the hall, in which the members of the respective orders were promiscuously assembled, clad in deep mourning, and habited in the Hungarian dress, with the crown of St. Stephen on her head, and the scymetar at her side, both objects of high veneration to the natives, who are devoted to the memory of their antient sovereigns. She traversed the apartment with a slow and majestic step, and ascended the tribune, from whence the sovereign is accustomed to harangue the states. After an awful silence of a few minutes, the chancellor detailed the distressed situation of their sovereign, and requested immediate assistance.

‘ Maria Theresa then came forward, and addressed the deputies in Latin, a language in common use among the Hungarians, and in which, as if emulous of the spirit of antient Rome, they preserved the deliberations of the diet and the records of the kingdom. “ The disastrous situation of our affairs,” she said, “ has moved us to lay before our dear and faithful States of Hungary the recent invasion of Austria, the danger now impending over this kingdom, and a proposal for the consideration of a remedy. The very existence of the kingdom of Hungary, of our own person, of our children, and our crown, are now at stake. Forsaken by all, we place our sole resource in the fidelity, arms, and long-tried valour of the Hungarians; exhorting you, the States and Orders, to deliberate without delay in this extreme danger, on the most effectual measures for the security of our person, of our children, and of our crown, and to carry them into immediate execution. In regard to ourself, the faithful States and Orders of Hungary shall experience our hearty co-operation in all things, which may promote the pristine happiness of this antient kingdom, and the honour of the people.”

‘ The youth, beauty, and extreme distress of Maria Theresa, who was then pregnant, made an instantaneous impression on the whole assembly. All the deputies drew their sabres half out of the scabbard, and then throwing them back as far as the hilt, exclaimed, “ We will consecrate our lives and arms; we will die for our king, Maria Theresa!” Affected with this effusion of zeal and loyalty, the Queen, who had hitherto preserved a calm and dignified deportment, burst into tears of joy and gratitude; the members of the States, roused almost to frenzy by this proof of her sensibility, testified, by their gestures and acclamations, the most heartfelt admiration, and, repairing to the diet, voted a liberal supply of men and money.’

In a note, Mr. Coxe gives the original Latin speech, which he transcribed from the Archives of Hungary.

Our limits will not permit us to state any of the numerous curious particulars relating to this memorable war, which Mr. Coxe's industry and opportunities have enabled him to superadd

peradd to those that are contained in preceding histories.—It would gratify us exceedingly to have it in our power to give an idea of the admirable manner, in which Mr. Coxe details the steps by which the courts of Vienna and Versailles approximated, and those which brought on a coolness and afterward a separation between the former and the maritime powers; events from which such mighty consequences have resulted.

No part of this voluminous narrative deserves more praise than that which exhibits the causes of the seven years' war, with the conduct and views of the parties who were engaged in it; and though numerous writers of considerable eminence have given accounts of this remarkable contest, we know not any more correct, methodical, and luminous, than that which is supplied in these volumes, nor does any portion of the work appear to have been more directly drawn from original sources.—Kaunitz and his mistress seem to have calculated on every thing except the extraordinary qualities of the Prussian monarch, and the uncertain play of fortune.

From the above praise, however, we must except the author's statement of the behaviour of England towards the Great Frederic at the beginning of the present reign. The dishonourable conduct of the Favourite at our Court towards the Northern hero is palliated, and his insidious proposals to the Russian and Austrian ministers are feebly and unsatisfactorily controverted. The dismissal of the great Lord Chatham, then Mr. Pitt, is also rather justified than reprobated; and this measure is never once held up as the commencement of those sinistrous councils which sacrificed the fair fruits of a glorious war, and which have advanced with an inauspicious consistency: occasioning first the loss of our colonies, and subsequently the incredible aggrandizement of our eternal rival. As the authority for the sentiments which he has here introduced, this respectable historian refers to Mr. Adolphus!

To proceed. The curious reader will feel very much indebted to Mr. Coxe for his narrative of the reign of Joseph II.; in which his account of the man and of the potentate appears to us to be equally distinguished by fidelity and discrimination. We cannot ascribe the same merit to all the parts of his history of Leopold: but we refer almost solely to those which detail the progress of the French revolution. If we are allowed to form a judgment from the sketch of that awful visitation which this volume presents, we give it as our opinion that the author has never rightly appreciated that event, nor discerned the conduct most proper to be followed in

in that difficult juncture. It also appears to us that his information on the subject is partial and scanty ; and indeed his own references shew that he has overlooked numerous sources whence important aid might have been derived, and has relied too implicitly on those which he consulted. The reader who should confine himself to the history of Lord Clarendon, admirable as it is, would form a very erroneous and imperfect notion of our troubles ; and if he would fairly judge of them, he must accompany the perusal of the noble historian with that of Whitelock and Ludlow, and the state-papers collected by Rushworth. This slender portion in the conclusion of the present work affords more scope for criticism, and more matter for controversy, than perhaps all the other parts of this massy production taken together ; and the author would have steered clear of this charge, had he finished his history with the reduction of the Netherlands by Leopold.

We have had so many opportunities of bearing our testimony to the merits and claims of Mr. Coxe, that in terminating our present article we need only to add that the reputation for industry, fidelity, fairness, and judgment, which he had established by his former productions, will be in no degree diminished but rather enhanced by the history before us. Future annalists, who may have occasion to go over any part of the immense space which this enterprizing and laborious writer has traversed, will find in him (with very slight exceptions) a faithful and valuable guide. His extensive acquaintance, with German authors, the access which he has had to a variety of important state-papers, and the diligent use which he has made of them, impart a value and an interest to his volumes, of which a perusal of them can alone furnish an adequate idea. To such as are ambitious of attaining comprehensive and correct views of modern times, we recommend not merely the perusal, but the sedulous study, of Mr. Coxe's History of the House of Austria.

As we deem this narrative to derive a principal share of its merit from its tendency to point out the mischievous operation and hateful nature of bigotry, we shall not close it without inserting a short extract which we before promised, but which we overlooked in its proper place :

‘ The wisest and best digested part of the plans of Joseph II., and that which reflects the highest honour on his memory, and which fortunately has continued longer than his other innovations, is the Edict of Toleration. By this memorable Edict, issued on the 13th of October, 1781, and afterwards enlarged at divers intervals, Joseph granted to all members of the Protestant and Greek churches, under the denomination of Non-catholics, the free exercise of their religion.

religion. He declared all Christians of every denomination equally citizens, and capable of holding all charges and offices in every department of state; he permitted every community consisting of 3,000 souls, resident in any town, to build a church, provided they could establish a permanent fund for the support of a preacher and the relief of the poor; and he ordered a new translation of the Bible to be made in the German tongue. On the Jews he also conferred many liberal privileges, and granted to them the right of exercising all arts and trades, following agriculture, and freely pursuing their studies at the schools and in the universities.

Mr. Coxe stamps on this measure the distinction to which it is so well intitled; and he informs us, in his account of the next reign, that Leopold, who set aside so many of his brother's regulations, 'retained and even extended the edict of toleration, and improved the regulations which had been introduced for the relief of the Jews.'—'By these wise and lenient measures, (continues the historian,) he gained the affections of his subjects, and soon restored tranquillity in most parts of his extensive dominions.' We cannot but here repeat the remark which we lately made, that it would seem that, with the exceptions of Spain and Portugal, Great Britain is the only country in which the civil rights of men are affected by their religious opinions!

ART. II. *Prize Essays and Transactions of the Highland Society of Scotland.* To which is prefixed an Account of the principal Proceedings of the Society, from 1799 to 1803, and from 1803 to 1807, by Henry Mackenzie, Esq., one of the Directors. Vols. II. and III. 8vo. 1l. 3s. Cadell and Davies, Murray, &c.

SINCE our notice of the first volume of these Transactions, (see M. R. Vol. 34. N. S. p. 46,) we learn that the members of the Highland Society have increased from about 500 to nearly 1000 members, including some of the most respectable inhabitants of North Britain. From this rapid augmentation, it may fairly be presumed that the spirit of improvement is generally diffused, and that the patriotic objects of this institution are warmly espoused. 'The Highland Society (says Mr. Mackenzie,) has been, not unaptly, compared to one of our own native rivers, which has its rise indeed in the Highlands, but which, increasing as it flows, fertilizes and improves lowland districts, at a distance from those less cultivated regions whence it originally sprang.' Though this association retains its original name, and professes to direct its primary attention to the region from which it receives its appellation, it has now enlarged its plan, and avows that it has

assumed the character and functions of an *Agricultural Society for Scotland*. In this view, therefore, we shall henceforwards consider it, and be happy to record its exertions and announce its success. Some expectations may warrantably be raised on such a combination of rank, property, and talents; and, as the annual grant of Government will probably be increased by the liberality of its opulent members, we may presume that the Northern part of the island will derive essential benefits from this establishment.

In the introduction to the second Volume, Mr. Mackenzie reports that the attention of the Society had been directed to procuring proper *Seed Corn* and *Early Crops of Potatoes*, to the prevention of *Emigration*, and to the improvement of lands subject to the servitude of *Thirlage*; that it had also, for the encouragement of literature, patronized a *Gaelic Grammar*, and a new *Gaelic edition of the Scriptures* and *Etymological Dictionary of the Scottish Language*; and that, in the Arts, it had encouraged the inventor of a *Life-Boat* for saving persons exposed to shipwreck. We are also made acquainted with the Correspondence and Communications with other Societies.

The prefatory pages of the third volume offer a classification of the principal objects prosecuted by the Society under the heads of *Public Works*, *Fisheries*, *Agriculture*, and *Manufactures*. Of the first, including the *Caledonian canal*, and the construction of roads and bridges, we shall take no other notice than to observe that these schemes are recommended not merely for their own sake, but as checks to *Emigration* by affording employment; for it is confessed that 'the situation of the country (Highlands) in its present state, defective to a certain degree in the means of subsistence and opportunities for industry, induces or obliges persons to leave it.' Not desirous, however, of retaining a superfluous population, and willing to afford protection to such as were obliged to emigrate, against the arts and cruelties of those who made a trade of enlisting emigrants for the colonies and seducing them by visionary prospects, the Society kindly recommended some legislative regulations; obliging ship-masters, who took on board emigrants, to make certain provisions for their health and comfortable subsistence during the passage. By this act, and by other measures of Government tending to employ the surplus population, such as inviting them by bounties into the army and navy, a pause in emigration has been produced.

On the improvement of the *Fisheries*, much inquiry and discussion have taken place in a committee appointed for that special purpose; and the full amount of the information collected

lected on that subject has been transmitted to Government, on the basis of which a bill has been framed, though not yet introduced into Parliament.

Among the objects comprehended in the class of *Agriculture*, Mr. M. specifies the introduction of sheep-farming—improvement of peat-mosses—cultivation of native grasses and willows—stapling of wool—breeding of black cattle—and the encouragement of emulation among ploughmen.—The *Manufactures*, or inventions relative to agriculture, are the Small Threshing Mill and the Reaping Machine.—Under the head of *Celtic Literature and Antiquities*, we find noticed a Gaelic Dictionary;—two antient harps, one of which was presented to the ancestor of the present possessor by Queen Mary when she was on a hunting excursion in the Highlands;—and the Report of the Committee appointed to inquire into the nature and authenticity of the Poems ascribed to Ossian. On this last subject we shall have occasion elsewhere to speak.

The first prize essay, in Vol. II. by the Rev. Dr. Walker, Professor of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh, is appropriated to the subject of *Peat*, and contains ‘an account of its origin, of its chemical principles and general properties, its properties as a manure, and as a manured soil, the different methods of its cultivation, its usefulness in plantation and gardening, and as fuel.’ In this ingenious philosophical treatise, which occupies 137 pages, various details are first given to ascertain the origin of peat; and to prove that all peat consists of vegetable substances, more or less putrid, formed by the decay of trees and plants in the places in which it is at present situated, and accidentally mixed with earth and other mineral matter. From the facts adduced to shew that peat-strata are formed by the decay of antient woods, we select one :

‘ There is a curious illustration of this subject given by the old Earl of Cromartie, a nobleman well known for his erudition and abilities. It is contained in a letter, written by him in the year 1711*, to Sir Hans Sloane. He there relates that, in the year 1651, when he was 19 years of age, he accompanied his father, on the family estate, in the parish of Lochbroom, in West Ross. He there saw a small plain covered with a standing wood of fir trees, but so old that they had neither leaves nor bark. Being in the same place about 15 years afterwards, there was not a tree to be seen, the plain was covered with green moss, by the overthrow of the old trees and the stagnation of moisture, descending from the hill. But in the year 1699, he found the whole piece of ground converted into a peat-moss,

* Philosophical Transactions, Vol. xxvii. anno 1711. p. 296.

from which the country people dug their fuel : a striking instance of the generation of peat from the decay of an old wood.'

Dr. Walker informs the reader that peat is peculiar to temperate and cold climates, and that strata of this substance do not appear to exist any where within 35 degrees of the Equator.—In order to explain the properties of this half-putrified vegetable substance, much chemical discussion is employed. Fossil bitumens are attributed, like peat, to a vegetable origin; and, to finish the climax, 'all the inflammable matter in the globe is supposed to have been derived ultimately from the sun.'

We cannot do justice to this instructive and amusing paper, by following the author *seriatim* through his explanations, 1st, of the antiseptic quality of peat, 2dly, of its power of resisting water, 3dly, of its properties as a soil, and 4thly, as a manure and manured soil; but we recommend it to the perusal of those who are desirous of ample information on this subject.—Of the antiseptic quality of peat or moss water, Dr. W. adduces many instances; among which, he quotes a circumstance that occurred in Captain Cook's voyage, and which, as affording an useful hint to our Navy, we shall also record:

'That celebrated navigator had to water his ship, on the coast of the Terra del Fuego. The only water he could obtain, was from a brook, the water of which was of a reddish hue, like that which runs from the turf bogs in England. This, no doubt, was moss water. He was, at first, suspicious of its quality, and used it sparingly. But, after having it long aboard and in warm climates, it proved the best water he took in during the whole voyage. It would appear, from his account, that it never became putrid. And, it is highly probable, that moss water, or water artificially impregnated with peat, would be more salutary, and remain longer unchanged, especially in the hot latitudes, than any other river or standing water whatever.'

To the antiseptic quality of peat-water, ascribed to the bitumen which it contains, is attributed the salubrity of the air throughout the extensive mosses in Scotland and the turf-bogs in Ireland; while all other places abounding with stagnant water, as fenny soils, are remarkably unwholesome.

Dr. W. does not accede to the high opinion which has been entertained by some persons, respecting the value of *Peat-ashes* as a manure. 'They contain not (he observes) a particle of fixed vegetable alkali, with which they have vainly been supposed to abound. They contain nothing but the mere fixed earthy parts of the vegetable substance, which, though

though small in quantity*, is no better than so much calcined clay.—For the uses of peat as a fuel, its application as a manure, and its management as a soil, we must refer to the Essay ; which, on each of these points, merits consultation.

A subjoined communication on the same subject by Lord Meadowbank contains ‘ *Directions for making Compost Dunghills from Peat-moss*, which have been used at Meadowbank in Mid-Lothian, in raising the last six Crops ; and been found to stand Cropping, whether by Corn of all sorts, Hay, Pasture, Tares or Potatoes ; and whether on Loams, thin Clays, or Gravel, at least equally well with Farm-yard Dung.’—This paper does not admit of abridgment ; which may be observed also of the subsequent *Account of the process of burning Lime with Peat*, by Mr. Jonathan Radcliff, at Cumbertrees, Annandale.

With the *Quid faciat letas segetes ?* we now combine the *Que cura Boum ?* being next presented by Dr. Walker with a Dissertation on the Cattle and Corn of the Highlands. This Essay, divided into five sections, treats of the soil and climate of the Highlands,—of the state of the cattle in that district during the winter,—of the grasses and green crops, proper to be cultivated there,—of the kind of grain proper to be raised,—and of the change of seed corn, requisite in that country.

It is remarked that the arable grounds in the Highlands consist chiefly of hazel mould, sufficiently adapted to the production of any field crop that is raised in England ; and that, though the mildness of the weather on the coasts in winter is greater than in England, this advantage is counterbalanced by the want of those degrees of heat in summer which prevail in the south, by a less early autumn, and by the frequency and violence of the winds and rains ; yet that the heat of summer is sufficient to ripen the ordinary white crops, viz. oats, bear, and rye. As the mildness of the winter enables the grazing animals to run abroad through the whole of this season, without receiving a mouthful of dry forage, the Highland countries are well adapted to the breed of cattle, which may indeed be considered as their staple produce ; but the supply of food is in general scanty, and the great desideratum is an increase of the quantity of sustenance. Dr. W. points out a variety of methods for accomplishing this object, both with respect to crops of dry provender and those of green forage ; and he is of opinion that the adoption of his advice would prevent the heavy losses sustained by the death of

* ‘ The ashes from a load of flaw-peat, may sometimes be contained in a hat.’

cattle, that the breed would be improved, and that the produce of every farm would be increased. His subsequent hints certainly merit attention in the district to which they apply: but, as they would not be generally interesting, we shall not here detail them.

Observations on the Economy of Black Cattle Farms under a breeding Stock, by Duncan Stewart, Kintyre. The author here gives directions for increasing the stock of winter food, for the management of the dairy, and for the prevention and cure of the diseases incident to black cattle.

The next paper, *On Corns (Corn)*, by Rob. Sommerville, Surgeon in Haddington, adverts to the injury which crops of oats often sustain in their approach to maturity, from fogs or light rains succeeded by frost; and it affords information to the Highland farmer, which will assist him in ascertaining how far such ill-filled and ill-ripened grain will serve for seed.

Lord Dunsinnan next communicates some brief remarks on the *Obstacles to the Improvement of the Highlands*, which will no doubt receive attention from the Society.

In merely transcribing the title of the next essay, by the above mentioned Mr. Sommerville, we shall afford our readers a sufficient insight into its substance: '*On the propriety or impropriety of burning Heath grounds, for sheep pasture. The practicability of gradually rooting out Heath, and raising in its stead a greater portion of grass by well-conducted burning; the nature of the soil where it is most beneficial, and of that also where it is improper to burn Heath. The situation and exposure of the ground most proper for this purpose, the length of time during which the ground should be herded, and the attention requisite after burning, to prevent the tender grass from being injured by too early eating.*'

A paper on *Manufactures*, by Angus Macdonald, recommends the introduction of the woollen and linen manufactures into the Highlands; since the hills are adapted to the maintenance of sheep, as the vallies and dales are to the growth of flax, and since the industrious character of the inhabitants is favourable to such a measure. At the end of this essay, the Highland householder is advised to keep five or six hives of bees, as 'it is reckoned that a hive of bees is more profitable than a cow.' The inhabitants of the southern parts of the island will receive this information with some surprise.

A Plan of an inland Village for the accommodation of manufacturers, by the Rev. Robert Rennie, Minister of Kilsyth, with *Remarks on the plan* by Col. Dirom of Mount Annan, form the subject of two papers, each of which is illustrated

by a map, necessary to the explanation of the schemes proposed. It is lamented that Manufactures should operate to the injury of morals; and in a subjoined note, some ideas are suggested for the prevention of this usual consequence.

To that valuable fish, the *Herring*, three papers are assigned, the first of which is intitled *Extracts from "An Essay on the Natural, Commercial, and Economical History of the Herring,"* by the Rev. Dr. Walker.—Many curious particulars are collected by this learned Professor, for the elucidation of the natural history of the Herring, under the heads *species, spawning, size, food, residence, shoals, and migrations*. From this part of the essay, we must purloin a few paragraphs:

‘ Most fishes, and especially those of the gregarious kind, are liable to migrations at different seasons of the year, and they migrate chiefly for two reasons; the pursuit of sustenance, and the purpose of propagation. It is evident that the herrings receive little or no sustenance upon the British shores; that to deposit their spawn is the sole purpose of their appearance; and that they immediately retreat, after having accomplished that process of nature.

‘ It has always been, and is still a matter of some uncertainty, to what precise region of the ocean the herrings retire when they abandon the shores of Britain. It is thought by some, that after the herrings have spawned on our shore, they return to the deeps, but not far distant from our coasts, where they remain at the bottom till they return the following season. But they have never been discovered in this situation; and no herrings have ever been known upon our shore except what proceed from the northward of the Shetland islands, from whence they pay their regular annual visit to the coasts of Scotland.

‘ That all the herrings on the British coasts retire in February and March towards the North sea, is pretty evident, but to what tract of that sea, and how far north they proceed, is not exactly known. They have never been seen by any of our numerous whale fishers any where near the coasts of Greenland, and it is probable that they never go so far north. It is a current, but erroneous opinion among our fishers, that the herrings breed in the great North sea. But that sea is too deep for the breeding of any fish, and it is evident that the sole design of the herrings in their visit to Britain is to deposit their spawn in the shallow water upon its coasts.

‘ The herrings approach the northern extremity of the Shetland islands in one immense body about the beginning of June: soon after which, they separate into several different divisions. One part ranges along the eastern coast of Zetland; another pursues its course between Zetland and the Orkney Islands; and another passes from the west through the Pentland Frith. These three divisions form all the shoals which appear on the east coast of Britain, from Caithness to Norfolk. The above great body of herrings coming from the north-west, does also separate itself into two other great divisions at Europa Point, the northern extremity of the Lewis. The first of these

passes along the western coasts of the Long Island and the west of Ireland.

‘ The other, which is the most considerable, enters the Minch between Europa Point and Cape Wrath, and spreads itself in detached shoals through the Deucalionian sea. Pursuing its course still farther south, it enters the Irish sea between the coast of Antrim and the Promontory of Cantyre. From thence different shoals are detached to Lochfyne and other lochs in the Frith of Clyde, to the coasts of Ayrshire, to the Isle of Man, to the Solway Frith, to the eastern coasts of Ireland, and in the end of the season reach even to the west coasts of England and Wales.’—

‘ During the months of July, August, and September, the herrings are easily scared and diverted from the place they occupy by a number of vessels or boats; by fishing in the day time, or even by moon-light; by throwing stones from the boats; and especially by any sudden and violent alteration in the weather. But in November when they come to embay and take up their ground for the purpose of spawning, they are not so easily deterred; and keep their station though the weather may be tempestuous, and though a great number of vessels and boats are employed in the fishery.’—

‘ The herring is a fish entirely confined to the waters of the ocean, and never enters fresh water rivers, nor appears even where the waters are brackish. It is therefore an error to presume that the herring is ever found in lakes or rivers of fresh water. It is, indeed, commonly reported that herrings are found in Loch-heck, a fresh water lake in the country of Cowal; but the fish there supposed to be the herring is probably the Powan, (*Salmo Lavretus*, Linn.) of Lochlomond, or the Vendace of Lochmaben: which in that country is frequently called a fresh water herring.

‘ *As food.*—No bad consequences have ever been known to arise from the use of fresh herrings as a diet, unless when eaten to excess; and even this seldom happens. Yet a surfeit of fresh herrings, like that of any other wholesome food, must no doubt be followed with bad effects. Whenever fresh herrings are cheap and in great plenty, there is certainly no fish in which the people of Scotland indulge so freely or eat in so great a quantity. During some winters, of late, they were so cheap in Edinburgh as to be sold for twelve, fifteen, and even eighteen for one penny. The labouring and poor people did then feed upon them immoderately, and yet no hurtful effects were ever known to proceed from their use, as they certainly form one of the most wholesome and nourishing articles of diet.

‘ Some fishes, though perfectly wholesome when in season, are known to be otherwise when out of season, that is, after the time of their spawning. But this is not the case with herrings; for in the months of January and February after they have spawned, they are still wholesome as food, though not so fat and firm in the fish, nor so agreeable to the taste as before they have spawned.’

In stating the rise and progress of the Herring Fishery, Dr. W. makes an observation which ought to attract more notice from the State than it hitherto appears to have obtained:

! There

‘ There is no fishery in Europe of any great importance in commerce, but what subsists on the shores of this country.

‘ The pilchard, the sturgeon, the anchovy, and the sardine, are but diminutive articles of trade, compared to the herring and cod fisheries of the north of Scotland; yet through inattention and mismanagement, really deplorable, this great source of national prosperity we have not only neglected, but have suffered it to be appropriated by the inhabitants of rival and remote countries.

‘ The fishes in the Scotch seas and rivers, capable of affording articles of export, are the following: herring, cod, ling, tusk, salmon, hake, skate, mackerel, conger eel, caiban, and dog fish. Of these the herring is by far the most considerable, and it is to the herring-fishery that these remarks are chiefly directed.’

Whatever advantages this fishery seems to promise as an article of commerce, we are sorry to learn that it is on the decline; and that, without some new and untried expedients, this favourite source of trade must be abandoned.

On the different sorts of Herrings which frequent the coasts of Scotland, with observations on the present modes of conducting the Herring Fishery, by Mr. John Mackenzie.—It appears from this paper that some dissonance exists between Dr. W.’s and Mr. M.’s accounts; the former, for instance, tells us that ‘ Herrings are not of a sufficient size to be meshed till the third year of their growth;’ the latter, that ‘ the growth of this fish is so rapid as to warrant the belief that all the herring fry in the course of a year arrive at maturity, and become of sufficient size to be taken in nets;’ and Mr. M. moreover offers some solid reasons for his opinion. The details of this writer evince his knowledge of the subject.

An account of the Dutch Herring Fishery, communicated by two Dutchmen to Cosmo Gordon, Esq. of the Custom-House of London, and by him to the Highland Society: to which is added the Placart or Ordinance by the States of Holland and West Friesland respecting the Dutch Herring Fishery.—This curious paper describes the size of the busses and nets employed by the Dutch-herring fishermen, with their mode of gipping, salting, packing, &c. and the hints thus afforded may be of use to the fishermen on the shores of the Highlands. The practice of our competitors is always worth knowing.

After the Herring follows the *Salmon*, concerning which fish we are furnished with four essays; first,

On the natural history of the Salmon, by the Rev. Dr. Walker. It is remarked that the Salmon may be reckoned the most important fish to be found in the fresh waters of Europe; that it is generally and abundantly disseminated; and that as an esteemed article of food, it forms a valuable branch

branch of trade and of revenue. For these reasons, its history is interesting, and the details here given will be amusing to most readers. The common Salmon of the North, whose history Dr. W. writes, is the *Salmo Salar* of Linné. Of his *spawning*, we have this account:

‘ The salmon does not spawn in large, deep, or slow-running rivers, nor where the bottom consists of rock, clay, or sand. They choose for this purpose clear, shallow streams, from eighteen inches to four feet deep, bottomed with small gravel, and, to be accommodated in such a situation, they ascend to the more remote heads of our large rivers. The female or spawner, always attended by the milter or male, forms a hollow in the gravel. When this hollow is made, both fishes hover above it, and approaching each other with their bellies upwards, emit the spawn and milt at the same time.

‘ This I have seen, but could not be positive whether or not the two fishes were in actual contact. When the spawn is lodged in the gravel, both male and female seem to unite their endeavours in covering it over with gravel, which they heap up over it with their bellies, forming an elevated ridge from fifteen inches to three feet in length. This convex ridge is raised from three to five inches high, is from six inches to a foot broad at the middle, and tapers to a point at each extremity.’

From the state of fry, the Professor traces the animal through the stages *samlet* or *smolt*, *hirling*, *whiteling*, and *grilse*, till in the fourth year it arrives at maturity, and receives the appellation of *salmon*; the weight of which has been known to amount to 75lbs. though it is now rarely found to exceed 40lbs. Notices of its *residence*, *migrations*, *colour*, *food*, *climate*, *numbers*, *diseases*, *time of catching*, and *dietetic use*, are subjoined. Under the last head, a melancholy instance is given of the unwholesomeness of this fish when out of season, or when it is termed *black fish*.

Extracts from an Essay on the same subject, by Mr. John Mackenzie.—Having for some years been engaged in the salmon fishery, Mr. M. presents us with the fruits of his experience. He has not been led to consider the Whiteling and the Finner, or Finnoc, as young salmon: but on the subject of *spawning* he agrees with Dr. W. in most points; asserting, however, that the male and female come in contact with each other with a degree of violence (p. 379.) immediately before they deposit the spawn, and that both male and female have been often found dead recently after having spawned. Mr. M. is of opinion that the Salmon grows as rapidly as a goose, and comes much sooner to maturity than is stated in the preceding paper.—Some remarks are also offered on the *habits* and *instinct* of this fish: *ex: gr:*

‘ The

• The exertions which salmon are sometimes known to make, in order to overcome obstructions to their passage up rivers, are truly surprizing. I shall instance in particular the cascade or water-fall in the river Shin, in Sutherland, which is from eight to ten feet high. When the river is low, salmon never attempt to surmount this obstacle, but in time of flood they frequently succeed. When about to attempt this leap, a salmon is observed, as I have been assured, to curve himself into the form of a bow, by bringing his tail almost to his head. Thus prepared, he springs up to a great height, and if he succeeds in clearing the fall, he rushes forward through the strong body of water that opposes him, with a degree of velocity that is scarcely credible.'

Mr. M. is solicitous to prevent the rapid decay of this important branch of commerce.

Communications on the same subject, by Mr. Alexander Morrison.—This writer also details the result of experience. He informs us that every river has its own peculiar fish; that there is scarcely an instance of a fish ascending a river of which he is not a native; that at least three male salmon die shortly after having spawned in proportion to one female; and that this fish will pass from a smolt to a salmon weighing 7 or 8lbs. in the space of about twelve months.

On the same subject, by Archibald Drummond, Esq. We learn from a note that this essay was not presented till after the Prizes were adjudged, and that the Society requested permission from the author to publish it on account of the important suggestions which it offers. Mr. D.'s paper, indeed, merits the place which it has attained. On the locality of the salmon, it furnishes more full information than occurs in any of the preceding essays. Dr. Walker reports that the salmon is altogether excluded from the southern hemisphere, but Mr. D. excepts *Patagonia*; and he observes respecting our northern hemisphere that the *Garonne* is the most southerly river in Europe, and the *Connecticut* in America, that is frequented by the Salmon. It is mentioned as an astonishing circumstance, that, though these fish when in fresh water will rise at almost any kind of bait, no appearance of food is found in their stomachs on being opened. In opposition to some naturalists, Mr. D. is of opinion that the ova spawned are not impregnated by the male till after their exclusion from the female; and he denies that *hillocks* or ridges of gravel are formed over the spawn. The *gilse* or *grilse* is maintained to be of the salmon species; the *samlet* is conjectured to be produced by the union of a salmon with a kind of trout: but the *phinoc* is denied to be young salmon. Mr. Drummond also deploras the decline of the fishery, and recommends the enactment of a broad

a broad and comprehensive law of *Conservancy*, to protect the fry, and to prevent the injudicious destruction of this valuable fish.

As an useful supplement to the foregoing papers, Mr. R. Melville presents us with an Essay on the *Fisheries of Scotland*; in which he adverts to the state of the Cod, Ling, and Herring fisheries, and urges the great importance of taking measures for the encouragement of these branches of industry.

In a memoir intitled *Suggestions respecting various improvements in the Highlands of Scotland*, by the Rev. James Headrick, many species of employment are enumerated, as the herring, salmon, and other fisheries, the improvement of land, the cultivation of hemp and flax, the growth of wool, the rearing of swine, the manufacturing of bar-iron, &c.; and from the author's hints the following general conclusions are deduced:

‘ That the Highlands and Isles possess great natural means of wealth, were that wealth rendered effectual by active industry:

‘ That there is no occasion for a Highlander to go to cultivate the wilds of America, while he is surrounded at home by so much land inviting his laborious hand:

‘ That, whether he chooses to work on sea or on land, above ground or below it, he is not likely soon to want employment:

‘ That, while we leant on the Northern Powers for the raw materials of our fleets, we neglected our internal resources:

‘ That, when these resources are called into action, Britain will become a world, able to contend with another world in arms.’

The last prize essay in the second volume contains *an account of the culture and produce of a field of potatoes in the vicinity of Leith*, communicated by James Bell, Esq. Merchant, Leith, and exhibits the superior value of a particular sort called Matthew Cree's early white-eyed store potatoe.

An Appendix, together with the lists of premiums and members, gives *the description of the manner of preparing any ordinary ship's boat, so as to render it a life-boat*, suggested by the Rev. James Bremner: but without the illustrative plates a clear idea of it cannot be conveyed.

The memoirs in Vol. III. must be the subject of a future article.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. III. *More Subjects than One*; or cursory Views of various Objects, principally connected with France and the French People : to which are added Essays and miscellaneous Reflections on different Topics. By J. B. Davis, M.D., Author of the *Antient and Modern History of Nice**, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Tipper. 1807.

WHY will authors provoke comparisons to their disadvantage? Dr. Davis evidently means to be considered as an imitator of Sterne, yet the motions of the cart-horse and the gazelle are not more dissimilar than the characters of the works of these two writers. The Doctor does not appear to have one drop of Shandean blood in his veins, though he has exerted all his powers to set himself off as an 'odd fellow,' and plays at that *hop, step, and jump* authorship which by some persons is considered as an evidence of excentric genius.

For our part, we have no objection to *more subjects than one* in a publication: but we are too dense to perceive the merit of jumbling different things together and making confusion for confusion's sake, when it would have been more easy to have consulted arrangement. In this piece of patchwork, (the motto to which should have been *Unus et alter assuitur pannus*,) the author aims at great variety, and presents himself as the traveller, the antiquary, the historian, the biographer, the novel-writer, and the essayist: but we cannot compliment him on having succeeded in each of these departments. He seems to have possessed himself with the persuasion that flimsy productions suit the taste of the age; and that the more a book resembles Chaos, the more acceptable it must be to our people of *bon-ton*. Be this as it may, we shall always feel it our duty to discountenance the nonsense and absurdity of authorship; and to cherish a regard for method, correctness, and good taste, in opposition to childish whim and irrational caprice. What good reason can Dr. D. give for wishing 'to be classed among the odd ones'? As a gentleman he is more at home than in the part of harlequin or clown; and we advise him, when he writes again, to banish all thoughts of Yorick, and to renounce the character of a manufacture of *Yorickisms*. At times, Dr. D. introduces a figure which may be termed the rhetorical *flying off at a tangent*. The reflection which arises in his mind when he is in the stables at Chantilly is of this sort:

'Now, (says he,) that I am in the superb stables of Chantilly, let me observe, by the bye, that 3,000,000 horses, which our country

* See Rev. for October last.

boasts of, exceed by one third the number we really stand in need of, either for agricultural pursuits, the sports of the chase, public service, and internal intercourse. Those lands, therefore, which produce forage, might be productive of wheat, and the quartern loaf accordingly be reduced in value, perhaps one third. Moreover, we have horses of a gigantic size, which will require three times the quantity of food, although they cannot perform double the work.'

Sometimes, the Doctor indulges in credulity, and presumes on finding readers as credulous as himself; for he not only records the romantic adventures of novel-writers as facts, but gravely tells us that 'no less than forty tuns full of gold watches alone were in the warehouses of the Mont de Piété at Paris.' It is true that he introduces the story with '*I have been told:*' but if he did not believe it, why blot his paper with it? The remark on this establishment is another instance of *tangential aberration* :

'This establishment might easily be made the temple of charity; but I sincerely lament, that if the authors of *l'Esprit des Loix*, *Télémaque*, the *Paradise Lost*, or the *Wealth of Nations*, had carried their manuscripts to the Mont de Piété, not one of the sworn appraisers would have allowed them the means of procuring a good dinner.'

Why should Dr. D. lament that pawnbrokers cannot appreciate the merit of learned compositions? Their scales can ascertain the weight of a piece of plate, and their judgment can discriminate a real diamond from paste: but to gauge literary talent must necessarily be out of their line.

Like most tourists in France, this writer commences his notices at Calais, takes us to Paris, and thence to the several towns and places which lie in his route; and if he had been contented to appear the plain philosophical traveller, he would have succeeded much better than in his strange vagaries and efforts at diversity. Some objects are well described: but, as the sentimental novel-writer, he displays his talents to no advantage. At Paris, he meets with many adventures, and his remarks evince a discernment of character and national peculiarities. A wish to do justice to the French people prevails, and he does not omit to mention those circumstances which redound to their honour. The following passage is a proof of this assertion:

'I cannot forbear mentioning in this place various establishments in France, which I have heard of as reflecting the highest honor upon the beneficent persons who supported them; and shall repeat, as far as I can recollect, in nearly the same words, the history which one of my friends recited to me. "I was in Paris," said he, "in the year 1783, immediately after the American war was at an end,

end, and generally spent the morning in visiting the public buildings and libraries. In one of these latter, the *Bibliothèque de St. Genevieve*, I had often observed a knight of the order of *St. Louis*, whose every feature and address would have spoken the gentleman, though he had not worn a badge of honor. We also met frequently at other places of public resort, where we exchanged a hearty, "*How do you do? I am glad to see you.*" On a sudden I missed this worthy gentleman, and would have willingly enquired after him, if I had known to whom to apply, when one day I was accosted by another visitor of the *Bibliothèque de St. Genevieve*, who said; "I suppose, Sir, you wish to hear of the *Chevalier* ****, and I am happy to inform you, that he is mending fast. He has been very ill indeed; but if you should wish to see him, you will find him at such an hospital; and I dare to say, (making a low bow) a visit from you will give him great pleasure." I instantly went in quest of the *Chevalier*, though I experienced very unpleasant sensations upon reflecting, that I was to meet him in an hospital. However, I proceeded with great expedition, and found him in a very decent room, seated in a comfortable arm-chair, surrounded with cushions, and every article of accommodation near at hand. After the first compliments, "The remembrance of this kind visit," added he, very graciously, "will never be effaced from my recollection: I must however observe, very candidly, that I am surprized a person of your superior understanding could have been so far influenced by national prejudice, as to imagine England was the only country where the afflicted could meet with relief and consolation. This is an hospital, it is true, within the precincts of which there are five other apartments besides mine, ready for the reception of reduced gentlemen like myself, who, for the trifling sum of forty sous per day, have medical and chirurgical attendance, one or two nurses to sit up at night, if requisite, are supplied with medicines; and when in a state of convalescence, with wholesome food, and such dainties as may be more agreeable to their palate or debilitated stomach. We know not who are our benefactors, neither do they enquire who are under obligations to them. Perhaps I shall not have left this place two days, before I receive an invitation to his sumptuous banquet, from the very person to whose pecuniary aid I shall be indebted for a speedy recovery, and the excellent treatment I have received under this hospitable roof. In many of our public infirmaries, there are also apartments of the same kind, destined for people of the same description, who, otherwise, could not even afford to see a physician." "Stop, my good Sir," interrupted my friend: "stop, I pray you: I rejoice at being able to inform you, that we have glorious examples in England of the beneficence of men, who make it their highest boast to devote their talents and a large portion of their fortunes to relieve the distresses of their necessitous countrymen. May there be imitators of these philanthropists in every succeeding age, who, like them, will divest themselves of private prejudices, and have no other motive than that of doing good."—Oh! that when I left the *Chevalier* I had met with any individual in distress! how welcome would he have been to the contents of my purse, though pretty heavy!"

• Happy

Happy do I feel that my predecessor, Sterne, knew not of those institutions! I never could have had the satisfaction of being the first man to recommend this mode of assisting those brave men, who, after having bled for their king and country, are reduced to a paltry half pay, scarcely sufficient to keep the soul and body from mutiny; in a state of health, and much less to supply the wants of an invalid!

In spite of the vices which afflict individuals and nations, benevolence will display her charms; and when we are most inclined to turn misanthropes, the voice of Charity retrieves the fallen credit of human nature. When we hear of such instances as that which has just been recited, we are willing to believe that the heart of man is not so black as it is sometimes painted; and that Religion, if it cannot subdue the tempest of the passions, has a powerful influence in promoting our best principles and affections.

According to Dr. D.'s report, the females of France are trained to industry, and are made to supply their trifling wants out of a fund of their own creation:

‘A custom prevails amongst respectable families, which I leave to the reader to commend or disapprove. From the time the daughters of this class of people leave school, to that of their getting married, they remain at their parents as mere boarders, no article of dress, or pocket money being allowed them; so that they adopt the habit of making millinery, embroidery, fancy dresses, &c. which articles a *marchande à la toilette* calls for every fortnight in order to dispose of them. The young ladies thus, without any further expence to their friends, procure the means of dressing well, paying for their admission at the theatre, and defraying the loss they sometimes sustain at the card table.’

Medical men are said to understand good eating; and Dr. Davis, in order to shew that among other objects he has not omitted to study French cookery, affords the ensuing hints: for which the aldermen of London will no doubt vote him the freedom of the city in a *turtle-shell box*, superbly mounted:

‘Beyond the gates of Paris, in every direction, there is a cluster of *Cabarets* or *Guinguettes*, which, on Sundays especially, are the resorts of the multitude. From these, however, are to be excepted *Le Gros Caillou*, and *La Rapée*, where the most genteel companies will occasionally go to partake of a *Matelote*. Pray, Sir, what is a *Matelote*? A very luscious dainty dish, Mr. Reader, generally composed of eels, pike, carp, and tench, with craw-fish in abundance, mushrooms, pickles, sauces, &c. &c. &c. the whole stewed, and swimming on a brisk fire in three or four bottles of wine, if the party is not very large.—In England we bet for a rump and dozen: in Paris the bet is for a *Matelote*. The parties go down to the river side, and choose their own fish: there are eels the size of my wrist, and carp that

that weigh ten, twelve, or even sixteen pounds, the other fish in proportion.

'The inn-keepers have dishes of every dimension; and though in the opinion of many it may appear an exaggeration, I will venture to say, that, upon many occasions, a turtle dinner in London is not so extravagant as a *Matelote*, which dish alone has cost twenty five louis.'

The accounts of places in the South of France are composed in a good style; and it is to be lamented that the author thought it necessary to interrupt them by matter which does not well blend with them. His descriptions of the country between Dijon and Lyons in the first volume, of his passage down the Rhone in the beginning of the second, and subsequently of Toulon, Marseilles, Arles, La Crau, Nismes, Beziers, &c. are amusing; and from this part of the work, therefore, justice to the writer requires us to make one or two extracts:

'Arles is certainly one of the pleasantest residences that a man might choose, could he forget his country. The town itself is delightfully situated on the flowery banks of the Rhone, and encompassed with gardens and orchards well watered, and where reigns a perpetual freshness, the first of enjoyments in so hot a climate. Numerous public walks, shaded with spreading mulberries, are the evening resort of the inhabitants. the finest race of men perhaps to be seen any where. Never did I behold a more fascinating assemblage of beauty. The women are, in general, above the middling size; their face is a perfect oval, a blooming complexion gives additional brilliancy to their black sparkling eyes, shaded by long eyelids; their nose is somewhat aquiline, like that of the ancient Roman ladies, whose likeness has been preserved by statues and medals; the rest of their features is perfectly in harmony, and the whole is set off by beautiful long black hair. Their shape corresponds with their lovely countenance, and their dress is well calculated to display its perfect symmetry; their under-garments are very short; their arms, bare almost to the shoulder, are ornamented with large golden bracelets, chains, &c. like those worn by Roman matrons; the drapery, which forms the outer dress, is a mixture of the Greek and Roman style, which gives them the appearance of those nymphs, figured in *antique basso relievos*. To finish the picture, I should add, that a lively gait, a constant cheerfulness, and the softest voice, give animation and interest to the charming *tout ensemble*. The men, although less particular in their dress, are not inferior to the other sex in exterior accomplishments; the inhabitants of this district seem a race of people quite distinct from the rest of the population of ancient Provence. Arles was formerly a Roman colony, and the descendants of the first settlers appear but little tainted with a mixture of foreign blood. The Arlatians have even *conserved* the taste of their ancestors for bloody sports, and bull-fights of various kinds are still their favourite diversions.'

As a specimen of rural description, we insert the subjoined passage :

‘ During my stay at Montpellier, I heard so much of the beautiful appearance of the country, between it and Beziers, that I determined to visit a district, which, on the faith of an old Latin proverb, was represented as a perfect paradise,

‘ *Si Deus in terris vellet habitare, Biterris.*

“ If God would dwell on earth, it would be at Beziers : ” let us see, said I, and I accordingly set out on my excursion.

‘ I soon reached the banks of *l’Herault*, a small limpid river, which gives its name to the department ; I followed its course for some time, through the most enchanting country, till I arrived at Penenas, situated on the opposite side. Words cannot convey an adequate idea of the surrounding scenery : nature seems to have poured her choicest and most valuable gifts on that privileged spot ; the earth is alternately chequered by corn-fields, meadows, orchards, groves of olive and orange trees ; innumerable gardens display all the perishable treasures of Flora, which the industrious bee, with buzzing noise, hastens to rob of their sweets. The genial rays of the sun quicken into life the latent seeds of the most fragrant plants, while its too great heat is tempered by the gentle breeze, wafting the vapours of neighbouring streams over the country. I never could describe the sensation I experienced on beholding the sun rising over this favoured spot, the chirping of innumerable birds, the gay songs of the sons and daughters of labour, going to resume their daily employment, the softest and distant sound of the *chalmieu* sacred to love, the air, charged with the fragrant emanations of flowers, carrying to heaven the grateful tribute of *flavoured earth*. Feelings entirely new thrilled through my frame, and intent on enjoying, I lost the powers of remembrance.

‘ I continued my journey to Beziers, without taking much notice of the once stately castle, belonging to the present king of France, and whose decayed state attests the indiscriminating havock of revolutions. The same features characterize the country all the way to Beziers ; but whether my admiration was in some measure exhausted, or whether a man does not care to have his judgment biassed, and his sentiments forced upon him, by an old proverb, I found the country about Beziers inferior to the neighbourhood of Penenas.

‘ Beziers is, however, a charming town, situated on a hill, at the bottom of which flows the Obre ; it contains, too, some antiquities, but of little importance, compared to those of Nismes. The famous canal of Languedoc passes at no great distance, yet Beziers enjoys little or no commerce. I went to visit that inland navigation, which is certainly a noble undertaking, but which we could more than match by several of the same kind in the United Kingdoms ; though I must own, that *in books* ours are nothing to it.’

We pass over the Doctor's return to Paris through the Bourbonnais, together with his arrest, and the circumstances of his situation with the detained English at Verdun. His
anecdote

anecdote of Rose de May did not deeply affect us, though he found a myrtle growing on the spot where she fell, after she had precipitated herself, in love-despair, from a rock, as Sterne found a nettle growing on the monk's grave; and we think that his concluding reflections evince more labour than felicity. As he is an M. D., we did not expect to find him adopting the vulgar error that to persons in a jaundice every object appears yellow. His language is often incorrect, and scarcely English. 'Having supped *with* a glass of capillaire and water,' instead of *on*: he 'was imposed 150 livres,' for *fined*: 'the French ladies are *foreign* to no subject:' 'well informed *with* literary anecdotes:' 'the Montmorencys have *illustrated* the land:' 'Pretexting an absence,' &c. The Latin quotations are sometimes inaccurate, but these may be mere errors of the press.

ART IV. *Richardi Bentleyi et Doctorum Virorum Epistolæ, Partim Mutuæ. Accedit Richardi Darvesii ad Joannem Taylorum Epistola Singularis. Londini, Typis Bulmerianis. 1807. Edited by Dr. C. Burney*. 4to. pp. 330. Not sold.*

WE shall not attempt to describe the gratification with which we announce this superb and interesting volume: but we must offer our tribute to the taste and the munificence of its most learned editor; and we must thank him, *etiam atque etiam*, for his ardour in the service of literature, and his zeal in preserving the memory of kindred excellence. This true critic will, as we trust, pardon us for communicating to the public a part of those treasures which have *hitherto* been confined among a chosen few; especially as our precipitancy, if we are precipitate, is only eagerness to proclaim the triumph which he has achieved for the *manes* of his illustrious predecessor.

To affect to *review* a work like the present would be ridiculous presumption. This article should be considered as a *notice*, enriched occasionally with extracts, which we ourselves

* The copies, as presented by the editor, are accompanied by this printed inscription:

‘ BENTLEYI MAGNI
Epistolis
in lucem, HONORIS CAUSSA, prolatis,
Locum
Intra parietes Bibliothecæ Tuæ adsignandum
Petit
CAROLUS BURNEY.’

and still more (it is feared) the reader would have been better pleased to see occupy the whole of it. Lest, however, the reviewer should be quite forgotten in the review itself, a few remarks shall be introduced, in due place and form.

The volume is divided into three parts: 1. *Bentley et Grævii Epistolæ Mutuæ*. 2. *Miscellaneous Letters*. 3. *Appendix*.

1. THE GRÆVIAN CORRESPONDENCE comprizes forty-four Letters, *Latin*. Ten from Bentley to Grævius: Thirty-one, including the *Epistola Dedicatoria præmissa Alberti Petri Paulli Rubenii Dissertationi, de Vita Flavii Mallii Theodori*, from Grævius to Bentley: one from Mr. James Cappel to Grævius; and two from Peter Burman to Bentley. pp. 1—149. This is by far the most important part of the volume; and had nothing else been printed, the editor would have offered very high claims to the gratitude of the public. Bentley's letters are such as might be expected from his incomparable talents, vigorously exerted in courting the favour of one whose attainments he admired, and whose virtues he revered. They are written with his characteristic energy, tempered by peculiar elegance of courtesy, and animated by a genuine spirit of benevolence and respect, which proclaims them the offspring of a feeling far higher than literary friendship:—they have an air of liveliness and amenity, totally different from the technical style and the dull formality of most *erudite epistles*;—and they display so rare an union of compliment not overloaded, and erudition not obtrusive, that they are fairly intitled to be called *inter epistolas eruditas elegantissimæ, inter elegantes eruditissimæ*.—Those of Grævius, though less important, are very interesting. Many, indeed, contain nothing but a recommendation of the bearer, and thanks for past attentions: but many also will be read with advantage by every scholar; and all give so amiable a picture of the writer's mind, that even the most insignificant do great honour to his memory.

Bentley opens the correspondence by requesting Grævius's opinion concerning the author of the astronomical poem which passes under the name of Manilius, and by offering him some literary services. The letter shall be subjoined:

* *Facile, uti spero, quæ tua est humanitas, indulgebis desiderio hominis, qui a teneris unguiculis eruditionem tuam unice admiror et prædico, et nunc demum ad amicitiam tuam Cl. Cramerì operâ viam affecto. Est quidam apud nos Edvardus Sherburnus, Eques Auratus, qui librum primum Manilii Anglicè vertit, et commentario doctissimo auxit. Is abhinc annis aliquot apparatus Gasp. Gevartii ad Manilium ab ejus hærede emit Antuerpiæ; mihiq; non ita pridem, quem novam ejus scriptoris editionem parare inaudiverat, schedas Gevartianas perlegendi copiam fecit. Comperi autem virum cl. omnem operam in eo posuisse; non qui Manilii textum corrigeret*

corrigeret vel illustraret, sed qui infelicem suam (mea quidem sententia) conjecturam de Theodoro Mallio Cos. quem Astronomici auctorem esse voluit, adversus Barthios et Salmasios, et Tristanos et Possinos defenderet. Nihil tamen in medium profert, quod momenti habeat quicquam ad opinionem suam stabiliendam, præterquam quæ dudum in lucem ediderat in Papinianis et Variis Lectionibus. Itaque cum toties repetita crambe nauseam mihi et fastidium moveret; mirifice tamen recreatus sum aureolis duabus episto is, quæ in isto chartarum fasce latitabant, quæque celeberrimum Grævii nomen ferebant inscriptum. Illud vero me perculisse fateor, quod ad Gevartii sententiam de etate Manilii videaris accedere: atque adeo, si confidentiæ meæ veniam dederis, libenter te velim sciscitari, seriõne istud liberoque judicio dixeris; an ut assentatiuncula istas (ut in rebus levioribus fieri solet obsequio baud inhonesto) ejus gratiam conciliares: et si forte serio, eademne nunc tibi ac tum olim stet sententia, quibusque argumentis statuminata. Erat etiam præterea, quod me Adversaria ista versantem non mediocri voluptate affecit, Dissertatio scilicet bene longa et perquam erudita de vita Et Mallii Theodori Cos. autore, ut casu comperi; Alberto Rubenio; cujus Opuscula Posthuma, te obstetricante, in lucem prodierunt. Hanc meo judicio minime dignam quæ cum blattis et tineis diutius conflictetur, curabo tibi mittendam; si ejus editionem te procuraturum fore polliceris: et quidem vel unâ cum aliis quibusdam, vel etiam sola non incommode edi poterit. Vir doctissimus et humanissimus Johannes Merus Episcopus Norvicensis utro tibi offert Lectiones Variantes in Libris Philosophicis Ciceronis, quas ex vetusto codice descripserat quidam in ora ed. Rob. Stephani in fol.; et ubi tibi cordi esse intellexerit, statim Amanuensi mandabit, ut omnes in chartam conjiciat; et sine mora tibi transmittat. Vale, humaniorum literarum decus et columen, καὶ φιλοῦντα ἀντιφίλῃ.

‘ Londini in edibus Episcopi
Wigorniensis, 4^o Julii, 1692.’

Grævius answers,

‘ Recens eram a lectione tuæ, quam Malela Chronicis subjecisti, epistola, cum Rotterodami, quo me domesticum negotium vocarat, inciderem in Cramerum nostrum, ex navi, quæ incolumem ex vestra beata insula retulerat, tantum quod egressum. Nihil tam cari capitis complexu mihi poterat accidere desideratius. Gaudium, quod ex insperato illius occurru copiebam, cumulabant quæ mihi statim de te narrare cepit. Plenus enim, ut sic dicam, tui, ita me ceperat pulcherrima illa tua disputatio, quæ tam multa præclara, tam multa recondita nos docuerat, ut totus in illa defixus de nulla re magis cogitarem, de nulla libentius loquerer apud homines non impositos quam de te, de tuo ingenio et doctrina, ut videreris non modo in animo, sed et in ore meo habitare. Mirifice enim gaudeo, ubi video succrescere, qui rei litterariæ fere collapsam dignitatem sustinere possint, et propugare, cum paucis annis plerosque omnes amiserimus, qui eam selabant tueri. Cum Cramerus non longe post tuas promeret ac mihi redderet litteras, plane triumphabam, mihiq; gratulabar, te, quem tanti facio, mihi ad amicitiam tuam ul ro, quod majorem in modum optabam, foros patefecisse, cum testificatione summa proluxa tuæ in me voluntatis. Nullum gratius a magno Rege mihi deferri potuit congiarium, quam quod tu mihi detulisti tui amoris munus. Velim tibi persuasum sit, et exploratum, omnium curarum mihi semper futuram antiquissimam, ut amicitiam, quam auspicato, sic augurari libet, iniimus, tuear omni studio et officio.’—

He then proceeds to return Bentley's services; and, that their recent friendship might be confirmed by a community of studies, he begs his friend's remarks on Callimachus, of which he was then preparing his edition. These remarks form the subject of many of the succeeding letters; in which, by the way, are some complaints of the slowness of printers, that would make no bad figure in a chapter on the *Miseries of Authorship*. Nor is Grævius less plagued by the acquaintances to whom, notwithstanding frequent hints from Bentley, the good man continues to entrust his packages, rather than expose his friend to the calamity of postage.

No. 29., by Bentley, on the ever-memorable Phalaridean controversy, shall be inserted:

*Quid sit, quid agitur, amicorum dulcissime? Si vales, bene est; ego quidem sic satis valeo; et ubi te bene valere et Bentleium tuum amare intellexero, tum demum me optime valere sentiam. Jam pridem est cum ad postremas tuas prolixam responsionem dedi, quam an acceperis, nescio, quia ex illo tempore nihil a te. Vix tamen dubitare possum de tabellariorum fide et cura; cum eadem vice literas alias meae Amstelodamum recte curatas fuisse, certo receiverim. In ea epistola multis verbis egi de loco Ciceronis aliisque, quae nunc mihi exciderunt. Memini tamen me illa scripsisse, a magna animi commotione, quam malevoli quidam homines in me excitant, non plane liberum et quietum. Vereor itaque, ne nonnulla in iis literis duriuscule dicta sint, unde offensiuncula aliqua oriri possit. Ea siqua sunt (sed spero meliora, nam Epistolae exemplum non habeo) oro te atque obsecro per omnia fidelissima amicitiae jura, ut ventis Aquilonibus in mare Atlanticum portanda tradas. Sciunt enim omnes, qui me norunt; et si vitam mihi Deus O. M. prorogaverit, scient etiam posterī, ut te et τὸν πᾶν Spanhemium, geminos hujus aevi Dioscuros, lucida Literarum sidera, semper predicaverim, semper venerationis sim. Nunc quid tecum in praesentia velim, vir humanissime, paucis accipe. Anno superiore Dissertationem edidi de Epistolis Phalaridis, quas commentitias esse docui his et similibus argumentis; Obitum Phalaridis, secundum Lusebium et Suidam, incidere in Olymp. LVII. * In Epistola autem ultimam mentionem esse Φιντίας. Phintiam vero urbem Olymp. * demum CXXV. conditam, ab Agrigenti tyranno Phintia nomen habuisse. Ibidem una cum Phintienibus nominari Τελίους, tanquam ab illis diversos: atqui eosdem esse Phintenses, † qui antea Geloi dicti. Epistolā XCII. ἡ; Ἀλαίαν. Sed Ἀλαίαν primum conditam esse Olymp. XCIV. ‡ In Ep. LXX. ποτήριον Τηρικλείαν: Pocula autem Thericlea a Thericle figulo appellari, || qui equalis erat Aristophanis Comici. In Ep. LXXXV. Ζαγκλαίους, in XXI. et LXXXIV. Μεσσηνίους. Sed eosdem esse Zancleas, qui § Messenii vocati Olymp. LXXXIII. sub Anaxilao Rhegi tyranno. Ep. XV. et aliis Ταυρομινίτας, Taurominium ¶ autem cond. Olymp. CV. Ep. XXXV. λόγος ἱεροῦ σκιά: hujus ** sententiae autorem fuisse Democritum, post Olymp. LXXX. Haec et alia multo plura quamquam in ista Dissertatione fusa explicantur, nuper tamen exorti sunt, quos haec nostri arrodere,*

* Diodor p. 167. † Idem. ibid. ‡ Idem. p. 246. || Athen. p. 470. § Thucyd. Hecod. ¶ Diod. lib. xiv. xv. ** Laert. Plutarch.

Phalarique pro vero Epistolarum autore denuo venditare non puduit. Quæ, inquires, hæc insania est, in luce tam manifesta tenebras persequi? Scilicet id male urebat homines, quod Epistolæ illas, quas ipsi haud ita multo ante cum magna pompa et ostentatione Oxonii ediderant, ego spurias esse, et nullius frugis, omnibus demonstraverim. Collatis itaque operis Libellum Anglice scriptum consarcinant; non argumentis, sed ineptis cavillationibus, convitiis, calumniisque rem strenue agentes. Inter alia id etiam vitio mihi vertunt, quod exterorum, magis quam nostratium gratiam promereri studeam. t vix quidem a te et Spanhemio maledicas linguas abstinent, quia me a vobis amari sciunt; in me vero quam impudens mendacium conflaverint, jam audies. Meministi, opinor, me olim Alberti Rubenii de Manlio Cos. Disputationem ab Edwardo Sherburno Equite acceptam, tibi typis vestris edendam commisi: te autem, me plane inscio, librum illum mihi dedicasse; de Sherburno autem nullam omnino (quod magnopere fieri optabam) mentionem fecisse. Narrant itaque hi calumniatores, me data opera Sherburni beneficium silentio dissimulasse, ut solidam illam Dedicationis gloriam in me transferrem. Quæ quidem calumnia quam a vero aliena sit, tu, vir amicissime, et Deus ὁ παντοδύναμος testes mihi estis. Testis etiam et Johannes Morus, Episcopus Norvicensis, vir eruditione et humanitate insigni; qui literas ad me tuas legisse meminit, quibus gratias eo nomine agebas Sherburno, ejusque ad Manilium commentarium a me magnopere laudatum te emere velle memorabas. Sed nescio quo casu periit mihi ista tua Epistola, quam nunc talento magno redemptam vellem. . . . cum ergo superest, peto a te, vir maxime, et per summam nostram amicitiam etiam atque etiam oro te atque obtestor; ut quamprimum fieri poterit, Epistola meæ, in qua verba feci de Sherburno, exemplum mihi remittas; tum ut literas mihi scribas, quæ rem omnem, ut gesta est, narrent; meque, ut æquum est, ab hac culpa absolvant; et una cum Dissertatione nostra mox recudenda typis edantur. Noli autem metuere, ne in rixam hanc incurras, aut irrites crabronum examina. Factu enim exigui pulveris hæc turbæ consilescent. τὸ γὰρ ὡς περ' ἱμῶν. et quicquid mea gratia scripseris, omnibus doctis et bonis, Archiepiscopis Episcopisque faventibus scribes. Va'e. In Aed. Sti. Jacobi, 29 April. 1698.

Vereor ne duriuscule, &c. This solicitude was quite unnecessary, for that preceding letter was full of expressions of the most affectionate regard. For instance, take the exordium:—

‘Longe mihi gratissima venit, quæ nudius tertius ad me allata est, Epistola, qua de literarum mearum intermissione benevole mecum expostulas. Eam enim objurgationem certissimum esse duco testimonium amoris erga me tui. Sed per amicitiam nostram oro, atque adeo postulo, ut me haud aliter erga te affectum esse credas, quam erga hominem oportet, cui maximis beneficiis sum obligatus. Quod autem jam aliquot menses nullas a me literas acceperis, malim aliud quidvis te suspicari, quam Bentleium tuum vel tui oblivisci, vel subirasci tibi potuisse. Nulla certe alia causa erat, præterquam quod neminem haberem, qui literas meas ad te perferret.’

The whole letter is in all respects worthy of its author. We add one signal passage:

‘*Quod ad Dissertationem meam attinet de Phalaridis &c. Epistolis, deque Fabulis Æsopicis; scito eam esse Anglice scriptam; nam ni ita esset, jamdudum exemplaria aliquot ad te misissem. Edita est abhinc quinquennium circiter a Gulielmo Temple Equite Disputatio, qua conatus est ostendere, vetustos scriptores in omni scientiarum laude ætatis nostræ hominibus præripere palmam. Sic Homerum, qui poema primus composuit, sic Phalarin, qui Epistolas, Æsopum, qui Fabulas; singulos in suo scribendi genere cæteris omnibus præstare. Hunc librum refutandum suscepit Gulielmus Wottonus amicus noster; qui cum forte ex me audierat Phalaridis Epistolas esse commentitias, Fabulasque, ut nunc quidem extant Æsopi non esse; per veterem, quæ sibi mecum intercedit amicitiam obsecrans impetavit, ut Dissertationem ea de re scriberem una cum libro suo eructo sane et bono publicandam. Adjunxi tres alias dissertatiunculas, de Themistoclis, Socratis, Euripidisque Epistolis. Omnes has supposititias esse tot docui argumentis, ut de hac re postea ne Carneades quidem dubitare potuerit, si esset in vivis. Multa quoque illic in transcurso dicta sunt; quæ, si Anglice scires, haud displicitura tibi fore satis scio.*’

The above quotation deserves the attention of the sapient personages who ask what motive, except pure pedantry and love of wrangling, could have drawn Bentley into so frivolous a controversy. If they are not satisfied with his own account, let them turn to p. xii. of the preface to the Answer to Boyle, where they will find a document, signed by Wotton, in which he testifies that the Dissertation on Phalaris was undertaken at his request, before the appearance of Mr. Boyle’s edition: that Bentley was averse to the dispute; and that he begged to be released from his engagement, because he could not write without noticing Mr. Boyle’s calumnies.

This is far from being the only instance in which Bentley’s character has been traduced on conjecture. Dr. Harwood, in his view of the editions of the classics, has the following remarks: “Dr. Davies was a very learned and judicious editor, and did not deserve to be contemptuously called *Juvenis*, as Dr. Bentley affects to style him in his *Emendationes ad Ciceronis Tusculanas Quæstiones*”, (article, *Cicero De Finibus*.) On the *Tusculana*, edit. *Davisii*, he adds, “only the editions of 1709 and 1738 contain Dr. Bentley’s *Emendationes ad Ciceronis Tusculanas Quæstiones*. Some illiberal and contemptuous reflections of Dr. Bentley caused Davies, I suppose, not to subjoin them to the second and third editions.” Thus is the memory of the greatest of men exposed to insults, by the absurd fancies of those who cannot or will not read their works! From the prefaces of those very two editions, it is evident that Bentley withdrew his *Emendationes*, for the purpose of republishing them in an improved form; and in the mean time he communicated a copy of the *Tusculans*, corrected throughout by himself, to Davies, who chiefly followed

followed it in revising his text.—This statement is made, and supported by the proper quotations, in the advertisement prefixed to some important notes of Bentley, published for the first time at Oxford in 1805, with Davies's *Tusculans*. These notes are an imperfect sketch of Bentley's *Cura Secunda*; which, as the editor says, on the authority of a most learned friend, were never finished, in consequence of the loss of some important collations.—We had forgotten *Juvenis*: the inscription is this: “AMICISSIMO JUVENI JOANNI DAVISIO, VIRIUTIS, INGENIO, ET ERUDITIONE PRÆSTANTI, *Salutem*.”—Such are bibliographers!

Nunc ad te, et tua, MAGNE PATER, consulta revertor.—The correspondence closes with Burman's letters; in the first of which he relates, in a very feeling manner, the death of Grævius. The second accompanied a presentation-copy of his *Petronius*, and contains, among other things, a strenuous invective against John Le Clerc.

We now proceed to PART II. of which little more than a catalogue can be given.

MISCELLANEOUS LETTERS.

Rev. Dr. Bentley to Rev. Dr. Bernard. Eleven Letters, Eng. Lat. pp. 153—183.

Rev. Dr. Bernard to Rev. Dr. Bentley. Nine Letters. Lat. pp. 184—197.

These letters afford some curious materials for the history of Bentley's mind. The subject of most of them is the *Dissertation* on Joannes Malelas, of which Bernard superintended the printing, and on which, as he proceeded, he communicated his remarks. To read this good man's letters throughout is no mean exercise of patience. If any thing can be worse than his objections to Bentley's criticisms, it is the outrageous absurdity of the conjectures which he would substitute for them; and the style, if style it can be called, is in character with the matter. Fortunately, however, the worthlessness of these letters has made them invaluable, in the testimony which they bear to Bentley's candour and moderation. In his answers, it is easy to discern a painful struggle between esteem for his correspondent, and disgust at his frivolous and pertinacious cavils; and though the friend prevails over the author, the victory is dearly bought. To a writer of Bentley's genius, it must have been a most severe trial, to see his first efforts misunderstood by the very man whose friendship and whose erudition should have made him the foremost to appreciate and applaud them; and that the disappointment was felt in its full force appears

appears from the end of the 3d letter, in which he says,—
*decrevi, et stat sententia, ubi semel pertexui quod ad Malelam
 exorsus sum, humanioribus literis nuncium remittere.*

John Le Clerc to Dr. Bentley. Lat. pp. 198—200. *The answer.* Lat. pp. 201—211.

Le Clerc asks whether Bentley is the author of a book publishing against his *Menander*. The learned reader needs not to be told that *Phileleutheri Lipsiensis Emendationes* is the book in question, and that Le Clerc's suspicion was well-founded: but, though he was right in the main, he first by some measures not very consistent with honour, and then by the tenor of his letter, which is insidious without art and imperative without dignity, completely justifies the dreadful rebuke which he receives in the answer. That wonderful composition is the brightest ornament of the present volume, and would alone have ranked Bentley among the heroes of literature. We deeply lament that its great length renders its total insertion in our pages impossible, and it must not be mutilated.

Dr. Bentley to Dr. Davies. Eng. pp. 212—217. The well-known castigation of Joshua Barnes and his Homer.

Dr. Bentley to M. Gacon. Lat. pp. 218—221. On two passages of Anacreon.

Dr. Bentley to J. C. Biel. Lat. pp. 221—227. On the sacred glosses of Hesychius.

Dr. Bentley to the Abp. of Canterbury, 2 letters. *To an anonymous correspondent,* 1 letter.—Eng. pp. 228.—238. On Bentley's projected edit. of the N. T.

Dr. Bentley to La Croze. Lat. pp. 239. 240. Requesting the collation of the Berlin MS. of St. John's Gospel.

Dr. Bentley to Dr. Mead. Eng. pp. 240—253. On the celebrated *Ἐντομολογία* inscription, of which Chishull and Dr. Chaudler have given an account. This incomparable monument, as all lovers of antiquities will rejoice to hear, is now safe in this country, in the princely collection of Lord Elgin.

The same to the same. Lat. pp. 253—255. With a copy of Nicander, corrected throughout at Mead's request.

The same to his brother, Mr. James Bentley. Eng. pp. 256, 257.

The same to Dr. S. Clarke. Eng. pp. 258—261. Giving a pleasant account of the state of parties at Cambridge.

The same to J. J. Wetstein. Lat. pp. 262, 263. Requesting his assistance in collecting MSS. of the Testament.

The same to Sir Hans Sloane, Eng. pp. 264, 265. Recommending Mr. Wrichman as a fit person for a member of the Royal Society,

The

The same to an anonymous correspondent, 2 Letters. pp. 266—279. The first in Latin, on the Inscription on the Statue of Jupiter Urius:—the second, in English, on the Persian æra Jounan or Yonane.

*The same to Hemsterhusius. Latin. pp. 280—318. The two letters on Hemsterhusius's edition of Julius Pollux, published by Ruhnkenius in the second edition of the *Elogium Tiberii Hemsterhusii*.*

We are now come to the APPENDIX, which consists of an English letter of 12 pages from Dawes to Dr. Taylor, controverting his friend's assertion *that the Greeks expressed the power EI by the single vowel E*. In the conclusion, he gives this account of the original design of the MISCELLANEA CRITICA:

'I am preparing for the press a volume in the critical way, (which I shall desire the favour of you to revise) with the following inscription: Emendationes in Poetas Græcos, Aristophanem, Euripidem, Sophoclem, Æschylum, Callimachum, Theocritum, Pindarum, Hesiodum, Homerum. Premittitur dissertatio de præcipuis poetarum dramaticorum metris, uti et de accentibus cum *ψευδωνυμοῖς* tum veris. Hanc excipiunt animadversiones in Cl. Bentley emendationes in duas priores Aristophanis Fabulas. In præfatione autem discribitur de aspiratione *Vau* prout in sermone Homérico obtinebat. Agmen extremum claudunt alteræ animadversiones in Phileleutheri Lipsiensis sive Bentley Emendationes in Menandri & Philemonis Reliquias. I have a pretty large apparatus, out of which these emendations will be selected; upon Aristophanes in particular about 1500.'

A title-leaf announces *Notes* from the editor; which, however, do not yet appear. For their present omission a reason is stated, which must be allowed to be valid, but the existence of which every lover of learning will regret*.

In now closing this valuable collection, we must express our hopes that its circulation will in due time be as unconfined as its merits are pre-eminent; and we must not omit to pay a deserved compliment to the artists who have contributed to the splendor with which it appears. Portraits of Bentley and Grævius, and *fac-simile* engravings of their hand-writing, are annexed.

* Editoris, negotiis familiaribus magis impediti, quam ut hæc studia digne possit excolere, Notæ cum indicibus brevi sequuntur.—Grenepici, in Com. Cantiano, Kal. Junii, MDCCCVII.'

ART. V. *Letters from England.* By Don Manuel Alvarez Espriella. Translated from the Spanish. 3 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

CUCULLUS *non facit Monachum*; neither will a Spanish cloak at a masquerade, nor a Spanish name in a title page, make a Spaniard. Ample internal evidence will be perceived by every discriminating reader, to convince him that the volumes before us could not have a Lusitanian origin; and the fact we understand to be that Mr. Southey and Mr. Duppa are the authors of the observations on England here presented to the public. This discovery, however, does not diminish any real merit which the remarks possess, though with some persons it may operate to abate curiosity. It is very probable that these gentlemen deemed it necessary to assume a foreign mask, in order to indulge with greater freedom in their reflections, thinking that their strictures and sarcasms would be more readily tolerated, when supposed to proceed from the prejudices of a Spaniard, than they would be if the real source had been avowed; and they no doubt supposed also that sentiments respecting English customs, laws, and manners, by a foreigner educated in a country and in a religion so different from our own, would excite peculiar interest.

Whatever may have been their motive, these pseudo-Spaniards have over-acted their part, and have betrayed such an intimate acquaintance with English literature, arts, politics, and sects, as a stranger just landed on our coasts could never have attained; and though in the character of Don Manuel Espriella they affect a violent antipathy to us as *heretics*, they unfortunately make him display a wider scope of ecclesiastical knowledge than a Spanish education ever evolves. Setting aside, however, all that respects the costume or *dressing* of these letters, and viewing them merely as spirited remarks on England, we must pronounce them to deserve in many respects the notice of English readers. They are not meant to flatter but to instruct; and, by removing the medium of national vanity and partiality, to enable us to see ourselves in a different glass from that which Englishmen professedly writing to Englishmen would venture to hold up. Naturally disposed to consider our country as *the best of all possible countries*, we do not sufficiently criticize our characteristic traits and numerous defects; and while our own travellers amuse us with the absurdities of foreign nations, we are not aware that we ourselves, on many accounts, are open to satirical animadversion. Yet, as already observed, we do not recognize the propriety of putting into the mouth of a Spaniard, and a layman, dissertations

dissertations on our numerous religious sects ; for this is a subject with which he could not possibly have been acquainted, and would not probably be interested. He might have compared our established worship with the *culte* of the Romish church, and, with the prejudices natural to a Catholic, have expressed his disapprobation of the want of splendor and ceremonies in the reformed religion : but he would not have descended to trace the shades of difference between our various dissenters, nor have felt his attention excited by disputes between Calvinists and Socinians ; much less would he have hunted after Swedenborgians, Quakers, Methodists, Mugletonians, Universalists, Jumpers, &c. &c.

Though, however, this part of the work is improperly attributed to any *Don Manuel*, it ought not for this reason to be passed in silence. A Spaniard is made to deliver himself with more shrewdness, not only on medical but on sectarian mountebankery and fanaticism, than is usually displayed ; and the ludicrous view in which both these topics are placed may serve in some measure to counteract these worse than follies. The growth of methodism, in particular, and the popularity and opulence of such a man as William Huntington, S. S. (Saved Sinner, according to his own interpretation, or *Sly-Sinner*, according to that of others,) afford a proof of the credulity of the multitude ; while the success of the Evangelical or Calvinistic preachers, who declaim against self-righteousness as filthy rags, too strongly proves that the English people are not displeased to find that moral qualities are greatly *under par* in the spiritual market, and that good works may with little risk be kicked out of doors. To the Established Church, the rapid progress of Methodism, under the fostering influence of *Evangelical Preaching*, is an alarming circumstance ; and whether called to an examination of it by a Catholic or a Protestant, her guardians ought not to decline the task. As offering the remarks of an acute observer, who is acquainted with mankind, this portion of the present volumes will not be disregarded by those who, looking through the disguise, can penetrate the real aim of the author ; which is to shew that the Establishment is in less danger from the Socinians, against whom they are most hostile, than from other quarters.

• With the Socinians all the hydra brood of Arianism and Pelagianism, and all the anti-calvinist Dissenters have united ; each preserving its own peculiar tenets, but all agreeing in their abhorrence of Calvinism, their love of unbounded freedom of opinion, and in consequence their hostility to any church establishment. All, however, by this union, and still more by the medley of doctrines which are preached as the pulpit happens to be filled by a minister of one persuasion or the other, are insensibly modified and assimilated to

each other; and this assimilation will probably become complete, as the older members, who were more rigidly trained in the orthodoxy of heterodoxy, drop off. A body will remain respectable for riches, numbers, erudition, and talents, but without zeal and without generosity; and they will fall asunder at no very remote period, because they do not afford their ministers stipends sufficient for the decencies of life. The church must be kept together by a golden chain; and this, which is typically true of the true church, is literally applicable to every false one. These sectarians call themselves the enlightened part of the Dissenters; but the children of Mammon are wiser in their generation than such children of light.

‘From this party, therefore, the church of England has nothing to fear, though of late years its hostility has been erringly directed against them. They are rather its allies than its enemies, an advanced guard who have pitched their camp upon the very frontiers of infidelity, and exert themselves in combating the unbelievers on one hand, and the Calvinists on the other. They have the fate of Sérvetus for their warning, which the followers of Calvin justify, and are ready to make their precedent. Should these sworn foes to the establishment succeed in overthrowing it, a burnt offering of anti-trinitarians would be the first illumination for the victory *.’

Waiving the serious subject of religion, we shall now briefly advert to a few of the observations of this pretended Spaniard on other topics. With some humour, he descants on the *oikophobia*, as he calls the English rage for leaving home and going to *watering-places*, and for picturesque travelling. We give a specimen of his ridicule of the former:

‘The English migrate as regularly as rooks. Home-sickness is a disease which has no existence in a certain state of civilization or of luxury, and instead of it these islanders are subject to periodical fits of what I shall beg leave to call *oikophobia*, a disorder with which physicians are perfectly well acquainted, though it may not yet have been catalogued in the nomenclature of nosology.

‘In old times, that is to say, two generations ago, mineral springs were the only places of resort. Now the Nereids have as many votaries as the Naiads, and the tribes of wealth and fashion swarm down to the sea coast as punctually as the land crabs in the West Indies march the same way. These people, who have unquestionably the best houses of any people in Europe, and more conveniences about them to render home comfortable, crowd themselves into the narrow apartments and dark streets of a little country town, just at that time of the year when instinct seems to make us, like the lark, desirous of as much sky-room as possible. The price they pay for these lodgings is exorbitant; the more expensive the place, the more numerous are

* A writer, who could reason thus philosophically and politically on religion, could never be such a bigot as seriously to believe that ‘the Protestant dead are in a place from whence there is no redemption.’ Vol. i: p. 224.

the visitors; for the pride of wealth is as ostentatious in this country as ever the pride of birth has been elsewhere. In their haunts, however, these visitors are capricious; they frequent a coast some seasons in succession, like herrings, and then desert it for some other, with as little apparent motive as the fish have for varying their track. It is fashion which influences them, not the beauty of the place, not the desirableness of the accommodations, not the convenience of the shore for their ostensible purpose, bathing. Wherever one of the queen bees of fashion alights, a whole swarm follows her. They go into the country for the sake of seeing company, not for retirement; and in all this there is more reason than you perhaps have yet imagined.

‘The fact is, that in these heretical countries parents have but one way of disposing of their daughters, and in that way it becomes less and less easy to dispose of them every year, because the modes of living become continually more expensive, the number of adventurers in every profession yearly increases, and of course every adventurer’s chance of success is proportionately diminished. They who have daughters take them to these public places to look for husbands; and there is no indelicacy in this, because others who have no such motive for frequenting them go likewise, in consequence of the fashion,—or of habits which they have acquired in their younger days. This is so general, that health has almost ceased to be the pretext. Physicians, indeed, still send those who have more complaints than they can cure, or so few that they can discover none, to some of the fashionable spas, which are supposed to be medicinal because they are nauseous; they still send the paralytic to find relief at Bath or to look for it, and the consumptive to die at the Hot-wells: yet even to these places more persons go in quest of pleasure than of relief, and the parades and pump-rooms there exhibit something more like the Dance of Death than has ever perhaps been represented elsewhere in real life.’

No student of Salamanca; or Alcala, could on a cursory survey of this island have held the mirror up to us with so much effect as this soi-disant Spaniard; who was aware, before he sat down to write, of the points on which we were most open to animadversion, and of the particulars which would operate against the high praise that we are apt to bestow on ourselves and *the land in which we live*. The state of the Poor, and the little progress of amelioration among that large class of society, are represented as strong facts against our boasted improvement in civilization. Our manufacturing system* is reprobated for its inevitable tendency to increase the number of paupers; and while the Bank is called our *Holy of Holies*, on account of our devotedness to Mammon,

* The present reign is said to be ‘the great epoch of the rise of manufactures and the decline of every thing else.’ Vol. I. p. 184.

a serious concern is expressed at the frequent executions for forgery; which, it is thought, might be prevented by increasing the difficulty of executing that fraud:

‘Surely, it is the duty of the Bank Directors to render the commission of forgery as difficult as possible. This is not effected by adopting private marks in their bills, which, as they are meant to be private, can never enable the public to be upon their guard. Such means may render it impossible that a false bill should pass undiscovered at the Bank, but do not in the slightest degree impede its general circulation. What is required in something so obvious that a common and uninstructed eye shall immediately perceive it; and nothing seems so likely to effect this as a plan which they are said to have rejected,—that in every bill there should be two engravings, the one in copper, the other in wood, each executed by the best artist in his respective branch. It is obvious that few persons would be able to imitate either, and highly improbable that any single one could execute both, or that two persons sufficiently skilful should combine together. As it now is, the engraving is such as may be copied by the clumsiest apprentice to the trade. The additional expence which this plan would cost the Bank would be considerably less than what it now expends in hanging men for an offence, which could not be so frequent if it was not so easy. The Bank Directors say the Pater-noster in their own language, but they seem to forget that one of the petitions which He who best knew the heart of man enjoined us to make is, that we may not be led into temptation.’

We pride ourselves on the magnitude, wealth, and splendor of our metropolis: but the reflection, which is here supposed to be suggested on a bird's eye view of London from the top of St. Paul's, contains much truth, and more than a mere bird of passage could have an opportunity of discovering:

‘It was a sight which awed me and made me melancholy. I was looking down upon the habitations of a million of human beings; upon the single spot whereon were crowded together more wealth, more splendor, more ingenuity, more worldly wisdom, and alas! more worldly blindness, poverty, depravity, dishonesty, and wretchedness, than upon any other spot in the whole habitable earth.’

Birmingham, as the region of curious manufactures, is painted in even more forbidding colours:

‘I cannot pretend to say, what is the consumption here of the two-legged beasts of labour; commerce sends in no returns of its killed and wounded. Neither can I say that the people look sickly, having seen no other complexion in the place than what is composed of oil and dust smoke-dried. Every man whom I meet stinks of train oil and emery. Some I have seen with red eyes and green hair; the eyes affected by the fires to which they are exposed, and the hair turned green by the brass works. You would not, however, discover any other resemblance to a Triton in them, for water is an element
with

with the use of which, except to supply steam engines, they seem to be unacquainted.

‘The noise of Birmingham is beyond description; the hammers seem never to be at rest. The filth is sickening: filthy as some of our own old towns may be, their dirt is inoffensive; it lies in idle heaps, which annoy none but those who walk within the little reach of their effluvia. But here it is active and moving, a living principle of mischief, which fills the whole atmosphere and penetrates every where, spotting and staining every thing, and getting into the pores and nostrils. I feel as if my throat wanted sweeping like an English chimney. Think not, however, that I am insensible to the wonders of the place:—in no other age or country was there ever so astonishing a display of human ingenuity: but watch-chains, necklaces, and bracelets, buttons, buckles, and snuff-boxes, are dearly purchased at the expense of health and morality; and if it be considered how large a proportion of that ingenuity is employed in making what is hurtful as well as what is useless, it must be confessed that human reason has more cause at present for humiliation than for triumph at Birmingham.’

With the same hyperbolical aversion to manufactures, Manchester is noticed; and it is added as a general remark:

‘We purchase English cloth, English muslins, English buttons, &c. and admire the excellent skill with which they are fabricated, and wonder that from such a distance they can be afforded to us at so low a price, and think what a happy country is England! A happy country indeed it is for the higher orders; no where have the rich so many enjoyments, no where have the ambitious so fair a field, no where have the ingenious such encouragement, no where have the intellectual such advantages; but to talk of English happiness is like talking of Spartan freedom, the Helots are overlooked. In no other country can such riches be acquired by commerce, but it is the one who grows rich by the labour of the hundred.’—

‘Wealth flows into the country, but how does it circulate there? Not equally and healthfully through the whole system; it sprouts into wens and tumours, and collects in aneurisms which starve and palsy the extremities.’

The large proportion of our population, which receives parochial aid, affords too much ground for this pointed remark; and we bring into notice this feature of the publication, though the sentiments are extravagantly expressed, because the only effectual method of benefiting the condition of the Country-Poor is by raising the price of their labour.

Don Manuel is supposed to land at Falmouth, to travel through Exeter and Salisbury to London, and thence to Oxford, Worcester, Birmingham, Manchester, the Lakes, York, Lincoln, Cambridge, &c., and back to the metropolis. On his return, he is made to visit Bath, Bristol, Bridgwater, Plymouth, and, at the place at which he first sprang on English

ground, to take ship for Spain. Composed as these letters have been in England, they contain many particulars of which the generality of our countrymen are ignorant ; and they are interspersed with anecdotes and *bon mots*, which, though not always accurate nor uncommon, enliven the narrative and produce a good effect. The reply of the celebrated engineer Brindley, to the question put to him in the House of Commons : “ For what purpose do you think that rivers were created ? ” is incorrectly stated to be, (Vol. 2. p. 157) “ To feed navigable canals : ” his real answer was, — “ The Almighty never designed rivers for navigation, but only to serve as drains to a country.”

By the studied analysis which is here given of every species of fanaticism and religious madness that has arisen in this country, we are led to conclude that the authors wish to see some cure of these mental epidemics attempted, and the public mind brought into a sounder state : but, with all our boast of being an enlightened nation, the *signs of the times* are too indicative that we are a people as easily deluded as any in Europe.

ART. VI. *Plantarum Guianæ Rariorum Icones et Descriptiones, &c.*
i. e. Figures and Descriptions of some of the rarer Plants of Guiana hitherto unpublished, by Edward Rudge, Esq., Fellow of the Royal and Linnean Societies of London. Folio. 4 Fasciculi. 15s. each Fasciculus, containing 12 Plates. White.

THE chance of war, as the author informs us, in a preface of elegant Latin, brought the plants which are the subject of this work into a British port. A French ship, loaded partly with cotton wool, but chiefly with a splendid collection of various objects of Natural History which had been made in Guiana by the order and at the expence of the French Government, was taken in 1803 by two of our privateers, on her passage to France, where the collection was destined to enrich the National Museum at Paris. On the arrival of the prize in the Thames, the whole cargo, after the usual preliminary forms, was brought to public sale for the benefit of the captors. The living plants, which constituted a valuable part of this collection, seemed at this time, from want of water, to be in such a state of decay as almost to preclude the hope of saving a single specimen : but they were transported to the Royal Gardens at Kew, where, by means of shelter and the application of artificial heat under the judicious management of Mr. Aiton, they soon began to revive, and were at last restored to their former luxuriance and vigour. The plants

thus recovered were purchased by his Majesty ; and the motive by which the Royal munificence was actuated, as the author seems to hint, was equally honourable in itself and generous and just to the nation, as well as to the unfortunate naturalists whom the fate of war had thus despoiled of the rich fruits of their painful labours. They were to be reserved till the return of peace, when some of them might be restored to their proper owners.

Besides the living plants, the naturalists employed on the expedition had, with uncommon industry, prepared a *Hortus Siccus* of such magnitude that it required eight large boxes to contain it. This magnificent *Herbarium* was purchased at the expence of the author and four other botanical friends, for 550 guineas. The specimens, which had been prepared and put up with the utmost care and neatness, were in the highest state of preservation. Neither mildew, the consequence of external damp or of moisture arising from the plant itself, nor the destructive ravages of insects, had produced the slightest injury in obliterating the colours or mutilating the forms of the rich contents of this copious *Herbarium*. The high state of perfection in which the specimens appeared,—superior, as Mr. R. observes, to any thing of the kind that he had formerly witnessed,—led him to conjecture that they must have been dried rapidly by means of hot-iron.—The remaining part of the collection, we may add, was composed of various animals; among which were many curious insects, and also some beautiful birds, peculiarly distinguished by the rich and gaudy plumage with which nature has adorned the feathered tribes in tropical regions. The latter, retaining all the brilliancy and splendor of their colours, were in such fine order as to emulate in a great degree the appearance of the living animal.

Urged by the repeated solicitations of many of his friends, Mr. Rudge undertook the task of preparing for the public eye figures and descriptions of some of the dried specimens which appeared to be new discoveries. For this purpose, he received the liberal assistance of Sir Joseph Banks, and had the advantage of consulting the extensive *Herbarium* of that distinguished patron of science. Here also Mr. Rudge acknowledges his obligations to two other eminent botanists, Mr. Dryander and Mr. Salisbury ; to the latter of whom he is indebted for the observations which are here furnished relative to the affinities.—Such is a short historical view of the origin and progress of Mr. Rudge's labours in the work under consideration. Of the book itself we shall now lay before our readers a very brief account.

The four Fasciculi hitherto published contain fifty figures of plants which are to be accounted new discoveries. Of this number, one new genus, including a single species, has been formed; and to this new genus the denomination *Erisma* is given, from the Greek verb *εἰσίδω* *I support*, on account of the *bractæ*, or small leaves which form an elegant support to the flowers. That our botanical readers may be enabled to judge for themselves of the grounds on which Mr. Rudge proceeds in constituting this new genus, and as a specimen of his descriptive language, we shall quote at length his account of the generic characters of *Erisma*, as well as those of the species comprehended under it:

• *ERISMA.*

• *Monandria Monogynia.*

• *CHAR. ESSEN.*

• *Calyx quadripartitus, inæqualis. Petala duo, inæqualia: superius calyce, confluent, basi corniculatum; inferius disco pericarpium pone filamentum insertum fructus dispermus.*

• *CHAR. NAT.*

• *CALYX: Perianthium monophyllum, persistens, utrinque pubescens, quadripartitum, laciniis inæqualibus: una multo longior, parabolica, obtusa, quæ petalum majus fulcit; reliquæ acutiores, semilanceolatas.*

• *COROLLA: Petala duo inæqualia, opposita, ambò emarginata: superius calyce confluent inter lacinias minores, latum, subrotundum, basi desinente in Nectario corniculato obtuso, longitudine petali, instar calycis extus pubescente; inferius disco pericarpium pone filamentum fertile insertum, latius triplo longius,*

• *STAMINA: Filamenta quinque: unum fertile, longum, incurvum, fundo calycis (sive potius receptaculo dilatato) insertum: quatuor reliqua castrata, brevissima. Anthera oblonga, anguste sagittata.*

• *PISTILLUM: Germen inferum, uniloculare, oblongum: Stylus filiformis, adscendens, filamentum brevior: Stigma obtusum.*

• *PERICARPIUM non vidi.*

• *SEMINA in germine tantum duo oblonga.*

• *Obs. Ordo naturalis mihi latet: cum Guttiferis nullam habet affinitatem. In flore clauso nectarium sursum spectat, in expanso petalum majus dependet, ubi diversam habet faciem.*

• *Species, ERISMA FLORIBUNDA.*

• *E. foliis parum obovatis, paniculis amplissimis, petalis emarginatis.*

• *CAULIS teres adhuc tenellus pube fuscâ stellatâ (ut in Malvaceis) obsitus. STIPULÆ parvæ deciduæ. FOLIA opposita vel subopposita, parum obovata, nunc ovalia, obtuse acuminata, supra glabra, subtus lævia, nervosa. FLORES terminales, trichotome paniculati, ramis ramulisque plerumque oppositis. Bractæ duæ, valde inæquales, unâ minimâ, pubescentes. PEDICELLI crassi, brevissimi. CALYX: Perianthium monophyllum, quadripartitum; laciniis oblongis, dense pubescentibus, unâ multo longiore. COROLLA: Petala opposita, emarginata: superius in nectarium corniculatum*

corniculatum fundo calycis confluentis faucibusque barbatum productum: inferius multo longius, unguiculatum. STAMINA: Filamentum fertile petalo inferiori oppositum, parum attenuatum: Sterilium interdum tantum duo vel tres adsunt. Anthera sagittata. STYLUS longus, apice incurvus.

Of the new species, we shall barely mention the names, under the class, order, and genus, to which they respectively belong.

Monand. Monog. MARANTA: 3 new species; Obliqua, Gracilis, and Petiolata.

Diand. Trig. PIPER: 6 new species; Fasciculare, Myosuroides, Eucalyptifolium, Angustum, Flexuosum, and Dumosum.

Triand. Monog. HIPPOCRATEA: 2 new species; Malpighiaefolia and Emarginata. SCHOENUS: 4 new species; Globosus, Longifolius, Fragiferus, and Floridus. CYPERUS: 3 new species; Amentaseus, Stellatus, and Tubaeiflorus. SCIRPUS: 3 new species; Tenuifolius, Pulcher, and Bromeliaefolius. CENCHRUS: one new species; Marginalis.

Triand. Digyn. PASPALUM: one new species; Gracile. PANICUM: 3 new species; Amplexicaule, Commelineifolium, and Scoparium. ARISTIDA: one new species; Elegans.

Tetrand. Monog. ROPALA: 3 new species; Hameliaefolia, Pinnata, and Nitida. POTHOS: 3 new species; Gracilis, Cannaeifolia, and Sagittaeifolia.

Pentand. Monog. VIOLA: one new species; Orchideifolia. SOLENA: 2 new species; Latifolia, and Gracilis. PSYCHETRIA: one new species; Quadrifolia. CEPHAELIS: 2 new species; Justiciaefolia, and Dichotoma. SCHRADERA: one new species; Ligularis. CORDIA: one new species; Panicularis, BUMELIA: one new species; Cuneifolia. CERBERA: one new species; Triphylla.

Hexand. Monog. MNASIMUM: 2 new species; Unilaterale, and Spherocephalum. BROMELIA: one new species; Longifolia. TILLANDSIA: one new species; Bromeliaefolia.

Cryptogam. Filices. TRICHOMANES: one new species; Elegans. DANÆA: one new species; Simplicifolia.

The accession of fifty new species, even to the immense list of plants already known and described, will, we doubt not, be highly acceptable to the lovers of botanical science. It is, however, to be wished that something had been supplied relative to the habits and economy, or at least that the *habitats* of the new species had been noted. This would have formed a valuable addition to the information communicated by the author. We are at the same time aware that this would probably be imposing a task on Mr. Rudge which only the naturalists, by whose industry the collection was made, could perform: for it does

not appear that any of the papers, in which the circumstances above mentioned must have been recorded, as far as we can learn, fell into Mr. Rudge's possession; or, if they did, no use has been made of them. With a view to these advantages, we cannot but regret that the original publication did not take place under the immediate superintendence of the first proprietors: though in making this remark we by no means wish to detract from the value of Mr. Rudge's labours.

The drawings, from the pencil of Miss Anne Rudge, if an opinion can be formed without a comparison with the originals, seem to be executed with fidelity and accuracy. In some of them, indeed, we perceive a slight degree of stiffness and formality: but this we consider as the unavoidable consequence of drawing from dried specimens. The engravings, by Mr. Warner, are in a very commendable style, and the letter-press exhibits much neatness and elegance.

ART. VII. *Letters on Natural History*: exhibiting a View of the Power, Wisdom, and Goodness of the Deity, so eminently displayed in the Formation of the Universe, and various Relations of Utility which inferior Beings have to the human Species. Calculated particularly for the Use of Schools, and young Persons in general of both Sexes; in order to impress their Minds with a just Idea of its Great Author. Illustrated by upwards of one hundred engraved Subjects applicable to the Work. By John Bigland, Author of "*Letters on Universal History*," &c. 12mo. pp. 448. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IN a former volume of our Review, the *Letters on Universal History* by this author obtained a favourable notice. The correct and enlightened views, and the just and manly reflections, exhibited in that work, merited our thanks and applause; and it is not without regret that our duty imperiously requires us to bestow less unqualified approbation on the present performance.

The design of Mr. Bigland, which is to convey to youth in a familiar and pleasing form a general knowledge of Natural History, is highly laudable, because no study possesses more attractive charms, nor tends more to expand and enlarge the mind. As some of the objects of it, also, are constantly within our reach, no study will conduce more to form those habits of thinking and reflection, the acquisition of which must always be deemed of the first importance in the education of youth; since these are habits which may be the means of dissipating the tedious languor of many vacant hours in the progress of life, and of affording an agreeable and innocent relaxation from

from the severer duties of professional pursuits; or, directed to more serious investigations, may contribute materially to the enlargement of our knowledge and the extension of our resources. The proportion of books on this plan is comparatively small. A work, therefore, tolerably executed, and comprehending within a small compass a general view of the objects of Natural History, ought to be regarded as a valuable addition to the stock of British literature.

A perusal of this author's preface, in which he affects to despise every thing like systematic arrangement, did not lead us to augur very favourably of the execution of the undertaking. Systems and methods in Natural History, it is alleged, are calculated only for those who are entirely devoted to the science, not for those who take an occasional glance at any of its departments; and it is farther urged that it would be extremely irksome to study and understand the terms employed in discriminating the classes, orders, &c. of the objects of Natural History. Here the authority of Buffon is unfortunately quoted, who says, "that all our families and genera are made by ourselves, and not by Nature, who knows nothing of these distinctions." This is undoubtedly true: but it ought to be recollected that systematic arrangements are also made *for ourselves*, to guide our steps in exploring the varied phenomena of inanimate nature, and in acquiring some knowledge of the multifarious objects of the animated creation. We have said that Mr. B. is unfortunate in citing the opinion of Buffon in support of his objections. The irregularities and excesses of that sublime historian of nature are lost in the brilliancy of his genius; but a few rude strokes of the pencil, which pass unobserved in the grandeur and magnificence of a large and masterly composition, will offend the eye in a small drawing. Besides, it is perhaps unknown to the author that Buffon and his cotemporaries entertained a strong prejudice against the classification of the Swedish Naturalist; and that even his botanical arrangement, by far the most perfect part of his system, has comparatively been but lately introduced into France.—It will hence appear that we entirely dissent from the opinion of Mr. B. with regard to the system of Linné, which he contemplates only as a monument of ingenuity and industry, while he totally overlooks its utility, and its tendency to encourage the study of Natural History, in consequence of the facilities which it offers for prosecuting that inquiry.

Mr. Bigland's work, as the title page announces, is arranged in the epistolary form, and consists of sixty two letters. In the first, he gives a correct view of the objects, extent, and

importance of Natural History ; from which we quote the following appropriate observations :

‘ Natural History, or Natural Philosophy considered in its full extent, takes in an immense circuit, and comprises an innumerable variety of objects.—It describes the structure of the universe, the motions, magnitudes, and relative distances of the planets belonging to the solar system, and their distance from the sun round which they make their ceaseless revolutions. It then descends to the description of this globe which we inhabit, and which is called the earth, and exhibits to our contemplation its parts and production, from the greatest to the smallest objects. The beasts of the earth, the fishes of the sea, the fowls of the air, the various trees, plants and flowers that diversify the landscape, with an endless variety, all come within the limits of natural history. More need not be said to convince you that such a study must be exceedingly interesting and agreeable. Every day you will discover new objects of attention ; every excursion will present to your view a variety of scenes beautiful or sublime ; at home or abroad, in your closet or in the field, you will possess in your mind a resource against ennui : you will never be at a loss for expedients for passing your time, nor be driven to seek amusement in the insipidity of the card-table, or the senseless roar of Bacchanalian revels.’

Here, however, we must remark that the author erroneously considers Natural History and Natural Philosophy as synonymous terms. Natural History is a descriptive view of nature in a state of repose : but Natural Philosophy is occupied in ascertaining the results and estimating the effects of the mutual actions of bodies ; and this latter again admits of a subdivision into Mechanical and Chemical Philosophy, according to the nature of the result obtained. In those cases in which no change in the character of the bodies in action follows, the result of this action or the events observed will come under Mechanical Philosophy : but, when a change is produced in the character of the bodies in action, the history of this change or the account of the phenomena observed belongs to Chemistry.

The second letter includes the common divisions of natural bodies into the Mineral, Vegetable, and Animal kingdoms ; an arrangement adopted by Linné from a fancied resemblance to the political state of society, and which, it must be acknowledged, is not without its quaintness. Mr. B. might have here noticed the more scientific arrangement followed by later naturalists, according to which all the objects of nature are divided into two great classes, *Organic* and *Inorganic* ; the latter comprehending Minerals, and the former comprizing Vegetables and Animals.—Letter 3. is devoted to Astronomy ;

in which the magnitude, periodical revolutions, and relative positions of the planets are briefly noted. Here the author details the common notion of the sun being a globe of fire, without any reference to the curious and interesting discoveries of Dr. Herschel; which prove that the body of the sun is opaque, that it is surrounded by two atmospheres, that the one which is nearest to his body resembles the atmosphere of our earth, and that the most distant is luminous, affording light and heat to the whole planetary system, as well as to the sun himself, which is justly supposed to be a habitable body.

In the 4th Letter, Mr. B. treats of the earth, of mountains, and volcanoes; the 5th and 6th give a very brief and a very erroneous account of minerals; the 7th contains the history of the atmosphere; and the 8th is occupied in detailing some of the phænomena of earthquakes. The same letter also treats of the ocean, of the proportion of land and water, and of the tides. Nothing, surely, can shew more clearly than this enumeration of the subjects, in the order in which they are discussed, how much the author has disregarded perspicuous arrangement, and indeed seems to have set all method at defiance. What could be more obvious than to treat first of the atmosphere, next of the earth, and lastly of volcanoes and earthquakes, some of the phænomena of which are not altogether destitute of analogy?

We must here pause for a moment, to correct some egregious errors concerning the nature of metallic substances into which the author has fallen, from not consulting proper books on the subject: 'Gold (he says, at p. 18,) is the heaviest, purest, and most ductile of all substances;' and afterward, 'in gold mines there is often found another metal called platina, which is the heaviest of all substances.' Lest some of our readers should be at a loss to determine any thing from Mr. Bigland's equipoised knowledge of gold and platina, we must inform them that the latter is considerably heavier than the former.—The characters of copper given by Mr. Bigland are still more extraordinary. 'Copper is a hard, heavy and ductile-metal (so far correct), abounding with vitriol and an ill-digested sulphur called verdigrease.' (p. 19.) When copper is combined with vitriol, (we presume that sulphuric acid is here meant,) it is no longer in the metallic state, but in that of salt or sulphate of copper. What an ill-digested sulphur is, we cannot guess. Verdigrease is also a compound of copper and an acid, (the acetic,) but without a particle of sulphur. Iron, according to Mr. B., is a compound of different materials: (p. 19.) but iron, we must tell him, is a simple undecom-

undecomposed substance. At first, we supposed that the author might have mistaken an iron ore or an iron stone, both of which are really compounds : but he adds to the character which he gives of this metal, that it is ductile, so that he must mean the pure metal, because in the state of ore it possesses no ductility.—Steel, he says, ‘is nothing but iron heated with red hot charcoal :’ but steel is really a compound of iron and carbon, or the pure part of charcoal.—Lead is said to be ‘a compound of earth and sulphur, together with a small portion of mercury :’ but lead is also a simple substance ; and Mr. B. will be surprised to be told that not a particle of mercury is to be found in our island, while lead is very abundant.—‘The magnet, or loadstone,’ he says, ‘is a substance possessing no beauty, and somewhat resembling iron ore, but more compact and ponderous.’ (p. 23.) Now the magnet is really an iron ore.—From what sources Mr. B. has derived his chemical and mineralogical knowledge, we are unable to conjecture, unless his researches have been directed to some of the alchemistical writings at the distance of three or four centuries ; for we may challenge him to produce a single hint of such crude and ‘ill digested’ remarks, in any works on matters of this kind which have appeared within the last 50 years.

The subject of Vegetables is superficially discussed in letter 9th ; the 10th is occupied with the natural history of the human race ; and that of quadrupeds is detailed from letter 11th to 38th inclusive. The errors and omissions in letter 23d, which treats of the Elephant, require to be noticed and corrected. In Mr. Bigland’s account of this noble animal, he seems to have been uncommonly assiduous in collecting all the wonderful stories of its strength and sagacity, which have been handed down from time immemorial, and copied from one author to another : but without the slightest notice of the latest and most authentic information which we possess respecting the natural history of the Elephant, derived from a paper by Mr. Corse, published in the *Phil. Trans.* for 1799, and which has been quoted not only in all our own, but also in most of the foreign periodical works. The omission is therefore totally unpardonable ; for if the author’s reading and researches did not lead him to the original source, yet, had he taken ordinary pains to obtain correct information on the subject on which he writes, he could scarcely have failed to stumble on it at second-hand. The first erroneous notion concerning the Elephant, which Mr. Corse’s observations enable us to correct, relates to its size ; which, according to common accounts, is from 12 to 18 feet in height. Mr. B. says that those of the Cape of Good Hope are from 12 to 15 feet ;

feet : but we never understood that the Cape Elephants were larger than those of the interior of India, which Mr. Corse had an opportunity of examining ; and that gentleman says that he never heard of one Elephant, whose measurement was well authenticated, which much exceeded 10 feet ; while of 150 Elephants employed in the Mysore during the war with Tippoo Sultaun, not one of them reached ten feet, and a few of the males only were $9\frac{1}{2}$ feet in height. The ordinary height of this animal seems to be from seven to nine feet.—The period of the Elephant's pregnancy is another fact ascertained by Mr. Corse's observations, and it is stated to be between 20 and 21 months,—in one case, 20 months and 18 days. It was formerly supposed, on the authority of Aristotle, to be two years.—Previously to the publication of Mr. C.'s paper, it had been asserted by all naturalists that the Elephant never propagated in a state of servitude, from a consciousness, as it seems to have been insinuated, of his degraded situation : but Mr. C.'s remarks clearly establish the fact that the tame Elephant is not less disposed to propagate, and not less qualified to perform all the functions connected with the continuation of its species, when circumstances are favourable, than any other domestic animal.—These are essential facts in the natural history of this extraordinary quadruped ; and having had a very wide circulation, they are matters of such public notoriety, that the omission of them by a compiler on the subject is really inexcusable.

Letter 39. treats of amphibious quadrupeds, including the Otter, Beaver, Walrus, and Seal ; and the 40th is devoted to the Bat kind : which Mr. B., proceeding on the notion of a chain of being, considers as the link between quadrupeds and birds. Twelve letters, from 41 to 52 inclusive, are occupied with the history of the latter description of animals. The 53d, which would have been in a more appropriate place at the end of the volume, contains general observations on animal bodies, with a particular reference to the striking marks of wisdom and design which are thus exhibited in the universe, and from which are deduced proofs of the existence of a supreme intelligent mind.

The four following letters comprehend the natural history of fishes. The Whale kinds are treated in the 54th, and the cartilaginous fishes in the 55th ; and the 56th, and 57th, include the four Orders of Linné, whose classification the author has followed in this part of his work.—A very brief account of crustaceous animals, of shell fish, and of the pearl fishery, is given in the 58th letter. The history of reptiles is shortly discussed in the 59th, and the 60th contains

contains all that the author has said of serpents. The few insects noticed in this work are either of a noxious or destructive nature, as the Scorpion and Locust, or are useful to man, as the Bee and Silkworm. The 61st letter includes their history. The 62nd letter, with which the book closes, is employed in general reflections on the moral and religious sentiments, which a survey of the works of creation naturally inspires. From this part, we quote the passage concerning cruelty to animals, which, as it contains an important lesson, we recommend to the serious perusal of those to whom it is addressed :

‘ The object of all physical research ought to be moral and intellectual improvement ; and indeed the study of nature, exalting our admiration, is peculiarly adapted to inflame our love for the Architect of the universe, the self-existent author of all existence. Our love of the Creator, however, cannot be more appropriately displayed than by the exercise of universal benevolence towards his creatures. This important moral truth I have every where endeavoured to inculcate ; and let it, my dear Sir, be impressed on your mind, and kept in your memory, that

“ ————— the poor beetle that we tread upon,
In corporal suffering feels a pang as great
As when a giant dies.”

‘ This effusion of poetry speaks no other language than that of accurate philosophy ; for there is every reason to believe that the sensations of many of the most diminutive insects are as exquisite, and consequently their sufferings are as acute as those of larger animals. The writhings of the poor worm on which we accidentally tread, evidently shew the pangs which it feels, shock the heart that is endowed with sensibility, and force it to lament the step which fortuitously caused these sufferings. Horrible, however, to relate, parents too frequently indulge their children in the wanton sport of torturing poor insects in a manner at which humanity must shudder. Although this horrid propensity may, at that early period of life, be attributed to want of reflection, yet, if indulged, it may settle into a habit of cruelty, and render their hearts callous not only to the sufferings of the brute creation, but to those of their own species. A parent, indeed, who encourages his child to torture a poor helpless insect, ought not to wonder, if he afterward see him a murderer of his fellow creature, which will very probably be the case, unless a want of courage, strength, or opportunity, prevent the exercise of his cruelty, or the terrific dread of the gallows restrain his hands.

“ What more advance can mortals make in sin,
So near perfection who with blood begin ?” Dryden.

‘ The supreme court of judicature at Athens, to its eternal credit, punished a boy for putting out the eyes of a bird that unfortunately fell into his hands ; and parents and masters should never overlook an act of cruelty towards any thing that is endowed with life
and

and sensation, however minute and contemptible it may seem.' (p. 442.)

This volume is accompanied by a number of plates: but the figures are small, and many of them are so indifferently executed in point of drawing and engraving, that we fear they will afford but little illustration of the various subjects. We cannot avoid remarking that the representation of a monkey *taking his glass*, and that of a parrot immured in his cage, are but quaint conceits; and although the one *may* have actually happened, and the other is no rare occurrence as a kind of useless pageantry in the train of civilized luxury, yet such incidents afford nothing characteristic of the natural habits of those animals.

The violations of grammar and orthography, of which the author has been guilty, are too numerous and too obvious to pass unnoticed;—we shall specify a few. 'Two parts of copper and one of zinc forms (form) brass,' p. 19.—'Spinning, weaving, and dying provides' (provide) &c. p. 40.—'Chamoing' for Chamouny, p. 13.—'Barbgroussa' for Babyroussa, p. 129.—'Thoraici' for *Thoracici*, p. 401.—In the explanation of technical terms prefixed to the work, we remark one which is ludicrously erroneous: 'subulated' is said to be 'formed like an owl', instead of *like an awl*.—At p. 255, the writer also forced a smile from us by talking of Mr. *Addison* killing twenty-three green monkeys when he was in Africa. Mr. Bigland meant, or should have meant, Monsieur *Adanson*.

With the exceptions which we have fairly stated, and some others which our limits preclude us from noticing, we must add that those who have only commenced the study of natural history may derive both amusement and instruction from the perusal of these letters.

ART. VIII. *Thoughts upon that Part of Revelations, which comprehends the History of the Western Empire of Europe, from the Commencement of Popery to its Overthrow in 1795: comprehending a Series of 1260 Years. Shewing the Unity of the Prophecies of Daniel and Esdras with the Apocalypse; and their clear Explanation of the Events which are now acting in Christendom.* By C. Goring, Esq., late of Bengal. 8vo. pp. 278. 6s. Boards. Walker. 1807.

SCEPTICS on the subject of the Apocalyptic visions will accuse Mr. Goring of taking that for granted, in his very title, which requires to be proved: they deny that any part of Revelations comprehends the history of the Western Empire

Empire, or that its uncouth emblems and hieroglyphics can, in the nature of things, afford a clear explanation of future events. Considering the difficulty of the enterprize, and the impracticable materials with which this gentleman was endeavouring to work, we think that his title ought to have been, "*An attempt to shew that part of Revelations comprehends the history,*" &c. It is indeed, surprising that any writer can engage in such a project with the faintest hope of success, if he reflects on the multitude who have failed before him, and on the impossibility of establishing any clear and fixed principles of interpretation, or of translating such grotesque imagery and emblematical painting into obvious and definable meaning. We do not here call in question the authenticity of this book; but the dissonance, which subsists among the legion who have ventured on its interpretation, will justify our doubts respecting its intelligibility. We have never yet seen any treatise which merits the title of *a Key to the Apocalypse*. The *Σειδιον* and *Σειδαριον* still remain sealed; and true critics will require something better than baseless conjectures and vague surmises, to explain what is meant by *Thunders, Trumpets, Seals, Vials, &c.** It will not suffice us to be told that such and such images *must be* prophecies of such and such events. Our reply is *Negatur assumptio*; and now where are the materials for constructing a demonstration? The Commentator has not an inch of ground on which he can stand: but he mistakes fancy for facts, and dreams for discoveries. It was a proof of Calvin's judgment that he abstained from an exposition of the Revelations, and of Sir Isaac Newton's weakness that he attempted it. This undertaking of our great philosopher is an illustration of the poet's remark, that

"Unthought-of frailties cheat us in the wise."

As a preliminary to the illustration of the Apocalyptic symbols, Mr. Goring, with many others, takes it as it were for granted that the "*last times,*" and the "*latter days*" mentioned in the Epistles must mean *our times* and *our days*: but, if the context be examined, and the testimony of ecclesiastical history consulted, this *postulatum* will be found altogether inadmissible. We know that the primitive Christians did not interpret the expressions, "*the time is at hand,*" and "*the coming of the Lord draweth nigh,*" to signify that, after the lapse of many, many centuries, the events pronounced by the prophetic spirit as being then at hand would take place. Had any one at that

* I have not, (says Mr. G.) entered into a discussion of the symbols of St. John: but here the chief difficulty lies; a difficulty not yet solved.

period protruded such a gloss, would he not have exposed himself to general ridicule?

At the end of his address to the reader, Mr. G. informs us that he has *varied greatly* from those who have preceded him in attempting to explain the Revelations, having followed what he conceives to be the *only true mode of elucidation*: he does not, however, tell us in what way this *only true mode* of interpretation, which was hidden from his predecessors, was revealed to him: but he hopes, as he has kept his 'Reflections' in his drawer one year longer than Horace prescribes, the public will not deem them crude. We shall offer a few specimens of Mr. G.'s 'only true mode of elucidation.'

On Rev. x. verses 8, 9, 10, he observes: 'This little book was undoubtedly the book before us, and a record of all human actions to the end of the world.' If St. John saw all human actions to the end of the world, it is strange that he gave us no intimation of the discovery and christianizing of America.

It is asserted that, by the *Gentiles* who were decreed to *tread down the holy city for 42 months*, (Chap xi. 2.) are surely meant the army of Romish monks and priests, who from 536 to 1796, (a space of 1260 years) when the Pope was carried prisoner to France, tyrannized in the holy city. Every part, however, of this position is assailable by a host of objections. It may be questioned that 42 months mean 1260 years; and, if the fact be granted, we have no specific direction from what period to date their commencement. It is also a mere assumption to state that the holy city means the christian church, and that it is the object of the prophecy to point to the papal usurpations. Papists, how much soever they may have deviated from the simplicity of the gospel, are not Gentiles. They deny the application of this passage to them; and they may accuse Mr. G. of injustice, in reporting of them that 'they have a god of their own in the Pope, who places himself on the high altar to be worshiped as God.' If popery, as to its power, was annihilated in 1796, why is Mr. Goring so much alarmed at the thought of admitting Catholics to civil privileges? His fears and his convictions are at variance with each other.

By the *two witnesses*, (v. 4.) Mr. G. understands the Scriptures: but does this elucidation harmonize with the subsequent account of the witnesses, that "they have power over waters to turn them to blood?" Yes, says Mr. G., *waters* mean *people*, and they are *turned to blood*, when, in consequence of 'receding from the law of God, they appeal to the sword.' — "The *street of the great city*" (v. 8.) is judged to be *France*: but why, when the city is expressly said to be that
in

in which our Lord was crucified, i. e. Jerusalem? We may, indeed, venture to add that the whole account of the two witnesses cannot, by any interpretation that is admissible, be supposed for one instant to relate to two written volumes.

In v. 19 "temple of God" is said to "mean men's minds;"—"thunderings" are "doctrines;"—"lightnings" are "convictions"; and "hail" means "calamities". "The moon" (Chap. xii. i.) signifies sensual pleasure. Was ever chaste Dian's symbol thus interpreted before?—"Michael" (v. 7. 8.) stands for 'the christian church,' and the "Dragon" for 'the heathen priesthood.'

Rev. xiii. verses 11—14 represent *the papacy*. "The mark of the beast" (v. 16. 17) is that of 'baptism,' and the number of his name in v. 18. viz. 666, is made to signify the same person whom Sir I. Newton would designate by his ΑΑ-ΤΕΙΝΟΣ, that is, the Pope; the numerals in whose title, VICARIUS FILII DEI, amount to the sum required.

The *α δε γινεσθαι εν ταχει* and the *ο γαρ καιρος εγγυς* at the beginning of this book, and the *και ερχομαι ταχυ* at the conclusion, seem to prohibit the application of its prophecies to events at a very remote distance: but interpreters do not duly attend to these restrictive expressions.

Without proceeding farther, we presume that we have adduced sufficient evidence to enable the theological reader to judge of Mr. Goring's merit as an expounder of scriptural difficulties. We should not, indeed, have so much enlarged on this subject, had we not observed with concern the great waste of time, thought, and paper, made by interpreters of the Revelations; and did we not feel it a duty to repress that presumption by which various writers are animated in giving meaning to the apocalyptic visions, when not one of them has any solid ground on which he may erect his bold hypothesis.—We cannot say in this instance that "*fools rush in where wise men fear to tread*," because unfortunately some "wise men" have sanctioned this mode of interpretation: nor would we apply any harsh terms to a gentleman of Mr. Goring's respectability and apparent good intentions: but we caution the learned and the pious from setting such dangerous examples in future.

ART. IX. *Saul; a Poem. In Two Parts.* By William Sotheby, Esq. 4to. pp. 190. 18s. sewed. Cadell and Davies.

"*WATER*," said the milksop son of a Baronet of the last age, in a Coffee-house at Bath, "*Waiter! bring me some brandy and water; a little brandy and a great deal of water.*"
The

The gentleman was easily served ; and they who prefer to have their literary thirst quenched, in like manner, by a little of the spirit of poetry diluted with a large dose of prosaic verse, will be exactly suited by Mr. Sotheby. As for ourselves, we are not partial to aqueous or water-gruel poetry, though we may be compelled in these times to be chary of our Brandy ; and the Muse that gratifies us must imitate Quin's counter-order, "*Waiter, bring me some brandy and water—a great deal of brandy and a little water.*"

To dilate is not to invent ; and the beautiful simplicity of scripture language appears with no additional charm, when bloated by incongruous epithets, and hoisted up on the stilts of heroic verse. If Mr. Sotheby meant to exhibit a specimen of his own patience, and to exercise that of his reader, he has succeeded ; and if he be solicitous of putting both to a farther trial, we advise him to weave into heroics the 10th and 12th chapters of Nehemiah : but, if he intended to display the genuine graces of captivating poesy, and to render the details of sacred story more attractive, he has, in our judgment, completely failed. His *Saul* is a heavy and nerveless poem. It "*drags its slow length along,*" like Pharaoh's chariots deprived of their wheels ; and the author tugs against the collar, the whole length of the journey. The effect is inversely as the effort ; and we are surprised that, in this fastidious age, he could persuade himself that such a production would gratify the poetic reader. He must be aware that those parts of the *Paradise Lost* which consist merely of narratives from the Bible, put into blank verse, are rarely perused, and that nothing is gained by such transfusion. The history of St. Paul, as given in the Acts of the Apostles, though more varied and more replete with incidents than the life of Saul, would derive no additional interest from such management as this gentleman has exerted. His plan does not admit of invention, properly so called ; and by amplifying and expanding, we only dilute the spirit by *a great deal of water*. We are anxious to discourage such attempts.

In the poem before us, Saul's madness occupies a great part of the first book, but the poet's delineation is laboured ; almost the whole of the second is composed of distinct addresses by Abner to each of the tribes at Ephes-dammim ; the entire argument of the third is, '*David sooths by his minstrelsy the troubled king, and slays Goliath ;*' and the fourth consists of '*a hymn to Jehovah, on the entry of the triumphant Israelites into Gibeon, Saul's envy and hatred of David, and the dedication of the spoils.*' The subjects of the second part are, 1. Saul, resolving to slay David, is prevented by

Jonathan ;—Michal, Saul's youngest daughter, urges David's flight from Gibeon ;—Interview of Saul and David. 2. David defeats the enemies of Saul ;—weds Michal ;—is again persecuted by Saul ;—is anointed king by Samuel ;—foresees in vision the kings of Israel and Judah ;—predicts the Messiah, 3. Samuel dies ;—David again persecuted by Saul ;—Jonathan's covenant with David at Ezer ;—Interview of David and Michal ;—David seeks refuge at Gath ;—feigns himself mad ; witnesses the rites of Ashtaroth and Moloch ;—his deliverance from the Philistines. 4. The meeting of Saul and David at Engeddi ;—Saul causes Ahimelech and the priests of the Lord to be slain ;—the Philistines encamp nigh Gilboa ;—Saul inquires of the witch of Endor ;—the Israelites defeated ;—Saul perishes, self-slain, on Gilboa ;—David laments over Saul and Jonathan, is crowned at Hebron, and defeats his enemies.

Such is the substance of this epic poem ;—of its execution we are bound in justice to the author, after the sentence which we have passed on it, to adduce a few specimens. Goliath of Gath thus hurls his defiance at the armies of Israel :

‘ So moved Goliath of Gath. And harsh the clang
Rung of his brazen mail ; and harsh his voice
That heard of either army, cry'd aloud :

“ Stay ye the battle. Wherefore set ye out
The armies in array ? From Gath I come
A Philistine. I sole defy your host.

Chuse from your thousands, and ten thousands, one,
One man confronting me. If fail this spear,
Gath serves ; but if Goliath's arm prevail,
Your nation serves, slave of our Gathite lords.”

‘ He spake, and brandishing aloft his spear,
Stept in his might advancing.’

David's account of himself to Saul, on his first interview, after having accepted the challenge of Goliath, is thus rendered :

“ Hast thou ere seen the Champion ? or, but caught
From far, the terror of his voice ?”

“ I heard
His voice : it breath'd defiance against God.
His stature I regarded not.”

Saul paus'd ;
Then graciously, with milder voice address
The shepherd Youth : “ Wage not the hazardous fight ;
In peace depart. I speak it not in scorn :
Brave Youth ! retire ; and with thy presence greet
Thy father's household. Not unhonour'd go ;

Be thine, this purple mantle. Ye proclaim
The King thus honour'd him. In peace depart!"
"Be honour mine, then only, when the Lord
Vouchsafes deliverance."

"Hast thou then no fear?"

"None. I have set my trust in God the Lord.
He is alone Almighty. Of my sire,
Jesse, a Bethlehemite, of Judah's tribe,
Are many born, and I, his youngest child.
My brethren serve in war. At home, my charge
To tend my father's flock. On my lone watch
It chanc'd, oh King! a lion and a bear
Seiz'd of my fold a lamb. Arm'd with my crook,
I follow'd, and I smote them, and brought back
The suckling from their jaws; and when the beasts
Rose up against me in their wrath, I caught
Each by the throat, and slew him. Thus they fell
Beneath thy Servant's hand. So, by my hand,
He who defies the armies of our God,
The uncircumcis'd, the Philistine shall fall
As one of those. The Lord, who from their jaws
Delivered me, Jehovah, from the hand
Will save me of the Philistine."

"Go forth,
Brave Youth! with thee, Jehovah! Arm'd like Saul
Confront the Champion. At thy sight, so mail'd,
The Philistine shall tremble."

David and Goliath now approach towards each other:

"Now front to front they met: the Gathite look'd
Around, nor foe discern'd, save that fair Youth
With staff and sling. "Am I a dog (he cry'd)
That thus thou com'st before me? Those I serve,
The Gods I serve, confound thee. The wild fowls
Of Heav'n, and beasts, shall banquet on thy flesh."

"The son of Jesse, answering: "Thou com'st arm'd
With sword, and spear, and shield; but I am come,
Come in Jehovah's name, by thee defy'd;
And I will slay thee, Philistine, in sight
Of either army. I will give, this day,
The carcasses of yon uncircumcis'd,
To air and earth a banquet. All shall know,
All earth shall know the battle is the Lord's,
And that the living God in Israel reigns!"

He spake; and, as the Philistine advanc'd,
Ran forward, whirl'd the stone, and full in front
Smote. And the stone deep in his forehead sunk.
Dead, prone on earth Goliath thundering fell:
And David, hastening, on the giant corse
Stood; and unsheathing the proud champion's sword,

Smote off his head, and rais'd in triumph, wav'd
Aloft its ghastly horrors, dropping gore.'

Let us now transcribe, for our last extract, the interview of
Saul with the Witch of Endor:

' Behold them, front to front, accursed both,
Saul, and the Sorceress. Her inquisitive gaze
Glar'd on him: and his eye-lid gradual sunk
Beneath her searching. Half resolv'd, the King
Spake:

" I entreat thee, at my pray'r, divine
By the familiar spirit, and bring up
Him, whom I name."—

" Thou know'st: what need to tell?
How from the living land Saul has cut off
Such as I am. Com'st thou to snare my life?"

' Each word the Sorceress spake, fell on Saul's heart.
At length: " So thou consent, and whom I name
Bring up, I swear, witness the Lord! for this,
Vengeance shall not o'ertake thee."

" Name the man."

" Samuel, the Prophet."

And the Prophet rose.

The Sorceress, at his rising, with loud cry
Shriek'd out, " Thou hast deceiv'd me: thou art Saul."

" Fear not; declare, what view'st thou?"

" I behold

Gods out of earth ascending."

" What the form?"

" The form of one in years comes up, with veil
O'ermantled."

Saul perceiv'd it was the Seer,
Stoop'd, and low bow'd his forehead to the ground.

" Why hast thou thus disquieted and brought
My spirit from its rest?"

Saul answering said,

" Oh, I am sore distress. Philistia's host
Gathers against me. Terror fills the realm,
God is departed from me, nor vouchsafes
Answer by dream or Prophet. Therefore, Seer,
Thus, I have call'd on thee."

" Wherefore on me,

If God is *clean* departed, and become
Thy foe? What God by me foretold, is done,
Thy kingdom from thee rent. In David's rule
Thy sceptre. For that thou, oh man, didst scorn
Obedience to Jehovah, thee, and thine,
And Israel's army, into hostile hands
God has deliver'd. Yea, to morrow, Saul,
Thy sons and thou, all, from the living land

Pass off!" He spake, and vanish'd. Saul on earth
Fell prone.'

We deem it altogether unnecessary, in this case, to descend to verbal criticism. The evidence which we have here produced is sufficient to shew that this poem is radically defective; and it is so slightly raised above mere prose, and accomplishes so little by its interpolated epithets and measured periods, that most readers will prefer the simplicity of the Bible-narration to this new-fashioned scripture.

That we may not, however, dismiss Mr. Sotheby altogether ungraciously, we shall take this opportunity of observing that the dedication of the first part of his poem to his wife has considerable beauty; and we shall cheerfully transcribe it, to obliterate in some measure the impression which the above extracts have made:

*'How, as I grace with Thee my opening lay,
How, with what language, Mary! may I greet
Thy matron ear, that truth's pure utterance meet
Sound not like Flattery? In life's youthful day,
When to thy charms and virgin beauty bright
I tun'd my numbers, Hope, enchantress fair,
Trick'd a gay world with colours steep'd in air,
And Suns that never set in envious night.
Ah! since that joyous prime, beloved Wife!
Years, mix'd of good and ill, have o'er us past:
And I have seen, at times, thy smile o'ercast
With sadness. Not the less my lot of life
With thee has been most blissful.—Heavenly Peace,
Thy guardian angel, Mary! has beguil'd
My woe, and sooth'd my wayward fancy wild.
Nor shall its soothing influence ever cease,
Thou present, weal or woe, as may, betide!
Hail Wife and Mother, lov'd beyond the Bride.'*

If Mr. S. had written thus throughout, the reader would not have exclaimed with David, as now he probably will, "*Saul! Saul! why persecutest thou me?*"

ART. X. *An Ethical Treatise on the Passions*, founded on the Principles investigated in the *Philosophical Treatise* *. By T. Cogan, M.D. 8vo. pp. 495. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

THE course of metaphysical and moral analysis, pursued by Dr. Cogan in his former volume, is ably and succes-

* See M. Rev. Vol. xxxiv. N. S. p. 81.

fully continued in the present; in which his claims to consideration as an acute and impartial observer, and as a dispassionate and discriminating judge, will be found in no respect to have diminished. The displays of general information, and the instances of felicity of style, which distinguished his preceding pages, are equally frequent in those that are now before us. He perseveres in taking no side, and steers clear of all systems, though he disdains no aids which the industry or the ingenuity of the disciples of any of them have brought to light. Men of a theoretical turn, indeed, will probably feel disappointed, on finding him studiously evading all decision on the great questions that belong to the subjects of which he treats; and which have so much divided the learned and frequently agitated the public. So completely does he abstain from committing himself in this respect, that we at one time imagine the discarded Common Sense of the North to have found an advocate in him; while at another, we are led to believe that he has surrendered to that philosophy which traces all the phenomena of mind to the grand law of association. From this latter bias, in fact, which is so generally that of the philosophers of our day, we are not left merely to conjecture when we declare that he is not wholly free: but for the partiality which he shews to Dr. Reid, we may easily account, as being a just tribute to the ingenuity and industry of that writer, and to the numerous valuable observations which enrich his works, unconnected with his crude hypothesis on the subject of the human mind.

The labours of Dr. Cogan may be considered as sketching the geography of mind. It is the object of his performances to mark boundaries, to trace grand divisions, to give a view of the general aspect of the country, to ascertain the qualities of the soil, to determine what it owes to the hand of nature, and to ascertain that for which it is indebted to art. He notes errors in the management of its economy, and suggests improvements in this important department. If the discussion leaves all others behind in importance, we are warranted in saying that this consideration is deeply felt by the author, and that he has proved himself worthy of the arduous task of descanting on it. The observations which he makes in his preface, on this topic, well deserve attention:

‘It is always pleasant to discover some degree of order, in the midst of apparent confusion; to trace the evidences of a regular system, where confusion seemed to be most predominant; and to remark final causes where accident or caprice were supposed to be most triumphant. But the study of the passions and affections of the human mind, has a much more important object than these. It is

is not confined to the mere contemplation of a force, which we all acknowledge, and all have felt, both by its salutary and pernicious influence; it is a study which also enables us to direct the impetus of the mind to its proper objects, temper the degrees of its energy to the peculiarities of the case, and place the more permanent affections on those things which cannot deceive or disappoint. For, although speculations of a philosophical nature may amuse and flatter, it is **UTILITY** alone which makes every species of knowledge of sterling value. Whatever honours we may be disposed to confer upon distinguished exertions of intellect, without **UTILITY**, all the labours of the learned, are but more reputable amusements; and the most splendid discoveries of philosophy, unless they be as operative as charity in the promotion of good, are but "as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal." —

' Since the passions and affections are so numerous, complicated, various, and opposite; since they may be excited by such an infinitude of causes, and are frequently productive of the most momentous consequences; since every object with which we are connected, or which presents itself at any time to the mind, may possibly call forth some affection, and have some influence on our well-being; it is obvious that the study of the passions and affections, to the extent which the subject requires, must be a labour of patience, perseverance, and indefatigable attention.'

Dr. C. then gives this account of the plan which he has pursued in the present treatise :

' It presents us with a view of human nature in a progressive series, from the first desire after well-being—which in reality is synchronous with the first desire that is formed,—through its various attempts, struggles, and contests, and into its many pernicious aberrations, with their causes. It next introduces us to the contemplation of those intellectual powers, with which we are endowed by the beneficent Author of our nature; by which we are enabled to remedy the physical and moral evils surrounding us; to form accurate ideas concerning the nature of that happiness we are perpetually desiring; to discover the line of conduct requisite for the attainment of it; to trace the number and appreciate the importance of those motives which ought to influence every rational creature, at every period of his existence, and in the midst of every seduction; and thus securely conduct us to the possession of all that good which human beings are rendered capable of enjoying.'

Our readers may be assured by us that the author has realized the pretensions which he modestly prefers in the subsequent passage;

' That so arduous an undertaking is very imperfectly accomplished, the author readily admits; but a conviction of the importance of pursuing the mode adopted has induced him to make the attempt. He confesses that all his hopes of success depend upon his determination not to use any important term without explaining his conceptions of its precise meaning; not to assume any thing as a fact which has not been proved; firmly, and yet cautiously to pursue

admitted *data* to whatever conclusions they obviously lead ; to trace consequences, as much as possible, from their source to their extent ; and thus carefully to peruse the history of human nature, and make a faithful report.'

Three disquisitions form the contents of this volume, in which the author treats of, I. *The Agency of the Passions in the Pursuit of Well-being*, (a judicious expression in a philosophical treatise, and preferable to the common and too extensive term *happiness*). II. *On the intellectual Powers of the Mind, as Guides and Directors in the Pursuit of Well-being*. III. *Inquiry into the Nature and Sources of Well-being*.

The line of inquiry pursued under each of these heads is thus stated :

' When we consider human nature as in pursuit of happiness, the following subjects present themselves as being most worthy of our attention. It is requisite to inquire what is the proper office and what are the uses of the passions, emotions, affections, and particular predilections, in this important pursuit : in what their irregularities and pernicious influence consist ; and to what causes they are to be ascribed ;

' To investigate those powers of nature, with which we are endowed, in order to direct us in the pursuit of well-being :

' It is also necessary to form accurate ideas concerning the nature of well-being ; what are the degrees of good to which humanity may attain ; and from what sources is this good to be derived : and also concerning the nature and degrees of misery to which we are exposed, and the causes to which it may be ascribed.'

The object of the work is to note particulars ; and this is also its chief merit, and that feature to which it principally owes its superior interest. We cannot better characterize it than by saying that it is philosophy giving instructions for the formation of the human character. Intelligent and well disposed parents and guardians, and ingenuous youths, will obtain a richer fund of practical information in this and the previous performance of the author, than is to be found in any volumes of the same bulk with which we are acquainted ; and happy will those be who diligently peruse them, and guide their conduct by the councils which they contain !

We regard Dr. Cogan as eminently happy in his definitions and descriptions ; and if his work had no other use than that of assisting our conceptions in this way, it would be intitled to a considerable share of notice.—It is impossible to state more neatly what education is, than it is accomplished in the succeeding short passage.:

' The professed object of education is to furnish the mind with competent knowledge, and enable it duly to appreciate whatever appears useful and interesting. It is this which either communicates, or strengthens

strengthens and exalts, a particular cast of character; cherishes the best affections, and directs them to their proper objects; calls forth every valuable talent; introduces confirmed habits, in whatever is useful or excellent; renders that familiar and pleasant which is to be the principal occupation in life, or which may render our station in it respectable and beneficial.'

The temper of true philosophy manifests itself in the first of the ensuing paragraphs; and the second exhibits to advantage the author's habits of observation, and his powers of description;

'Long attachments, and the love of novelty, have a natural tendency to counterbalance each other. Were it not for the force of habit, we should be carried away by every novelty, and be making perpetual changes, without any advancement: were we not allured by novelties, we should never emerge from the lowest state, to which we had been familiarized by customs and habits. The reluctance we experience to deviate from the paths to which we have been long accustomed, may sometimes prevent us from walking in one that is better, but it frequently prevents us also from losing our way; when the nature of the attractive novelty is well ascertained, and it is found to possess qualities productive of utility, then does our attachment to customs and habits become inveterate and pernicious; whereas the changes to which we are prompted by novelty alone, expose us to the loss of what we already possess, without supplying an equivalent.

'The *Love of Fashion* is manifestly an adventitious, not a primary principle in our nature. In its excess it is a sickly perversion of the social principle. It is generated by an union of a fondness for novelty, with the love of imitation; and it partakes of the vices of each parent rather than of their virtues; possessing the fickleness of the former and the servility of the latter. In its more moderate and legitimate influence, it may communicate occasional pleasure, by the introduction of an agreeable variety; but this variety, to be agreeable, must neither be violent nor rapid. It frequently calls forth the talents of various artists, and has thus afforded temporary advantages to thousands. But, enjoying arbitrary power, like every other tyrant it is perpetually abusing it. By despising the guidance of reason and good sense, it retards the progress of elegance and taste, while its votaries persecute those for singularity who possess them. It is most inimical to permanent utility and permanent enjoyment; compelling us to relinquish numerous advantages, when they are no longer in the mode. It entices persons of genius to direct their talents to some particular object; and when they have acquired skill, and address in their respective branches, and are rejoicing in the success of their labours, the fickleness of its nature leaves them in a state much more deplorable than that from which it had taken them. Nor can it provide support for a new class of the industrious, without involving those who lately administered to its caprices, in the depth of distress.'

Dr. C.'s readers will be highly pleased with his exhortation against a censorious and intolerant temper: but we would particularly advise the young, and those who have youth in charge, to peruse with care the observations of the author under the heads of *Ignorance, the Influence of present Objects, and Inordinate Self-Love.*

In his second disquisition, the Doctor states that the offices of the intellectual faculties in the pursuit of well-being are,

- I. To acquire competent knowledge.
- II. To retain, or recollect knowledge, for the application of it to suitable purposes.
- III. To imagine, or exert a creative faculty.
- IV. To will, or determine to act.
- V. To be conscious of our own state, and every part of our own operations.'

Though the tenor of this performance is studiously practical, the author occasionally displays his capacity for pursuing the nicest and most subtle inquiries connected with the difficult subjects under his consideration. We must ascribe great justice, if not novelty, to the remarks in the ensuing extract on the province of the imagination, and the nature and operations of Genius:

- If our preceding observations be admitted, they will indicate the precise office of the imagination. It is not destined to act alone. Without direction, it is wild, extravagant, and pernicious. But it is destined to suggest an infinitude of ideas from which the calmer faculties may make a due selection, and which they may render applicable to the most important purposes. Without its creative powers, all human knowledge would be confined to a few perceptions alone, impressed upon the mind by the medium of the corporeal organs, and these perceptions could only arise from the most obvious and striking properties of bodies; the organs not receiving aid from instruments, in the formation of which the imagination is concerned, their perceptions would be few and inaccurate; and we should of consequence be detained upon a level with inferior beings; not an exertion could be made, beyond what relates to the lowest stage of simple existence. Thus it is the imagination which furnishes the most ample materials; but it is the office of reason and judgment to combine and shape them into something productive of good.

• This combination of the reasoning and discriminating powers, with the thoughts suggested by the imagination, constitutes Genius; whose characteristic it is to discover interesting truths or to form pleasing, or useful combinations; that is, to enlarge our sphere of knowledge by investigating or developing important facts, which could never have been known, without its exertions; to multiply the conveniences and accommodations of life by ingenious inventions; and to augment our enjoyment by various combinations of thought, which call

call forth pleasing and dignified emotions, or charm by the lively and interesting figures presented to the mind.

These exertions of the human faculties are always considered as the most exalted, and the most wonderful. High respectability is attached to a proper use of the preceding faculties. A quick *perception*, accurate *discrimination*, just *judgment*, are valued as excellencies. Whoever duly exercises the mental powers, either in the acquisition of knowledge, or the application of it to proper purposes, is respected as a man of *Capacity*, of *Abilities*, as possessing *Talents*; that is, as cultivating and improving his mental treasures. But the superiority of men of genius, in the general estimation, is marked by the very epithet itself. Genius was originally deemed *supernatural*. The happy possessor was supposed to hold converse with a superior order of Beings, and it was thought that the *Genii* themselves immediately inspired him with his supereminent powers.

The operations of genius are consequently three-fold. They are observable in every new discovery, or improvement in the sciences; in all the works of art; and in the agreeable fancies of the brain. But, in each department, the relative proportions between the imagination and the calmer faculties, are very different.

In the pursuit of Science, *fancy* is the least apparent, but the reasoning and discriminating powers are most conspicuous. In consequence of a portion of knowledge, acquired by the exercise of the preceding faculties, some conception is formed in the mind, distinct from the knowledge obtained. This at first is a conjecture, an opinion, or a conjectural inference, which excites a disposition for farther investigation. An eagerness is produced to bring conjectures, opinions, and inferences, to the test, and to be assured of their truth, where truth appears highly important in itself, or introductory to more extensive knowledge. Truths being once ascertained, become to the philosophic mind the basis of other conjectures, other pursuits, other experiments and researches; until Humanity itself seems to soar above its nature, and to dwell among beings of a superior order. In occupations of this kind, Fancy, instead of being courted, is shunned and dreaded, as a seducer into the paths of error. Every conjecture is suspected, until it has been scrutinized; and it is possible that the philosopher himself, though in the pursuit of what is just and true, may not be sufficiently grateful to that imagination which afforded essential aid to all his investigations. A Genius of this description is usually honoured with the epithets of *deep*, *penetrating*, and *profound*.

Dr. Cogan's metaphysical skill no where appears to more advantage than in his disquisition under the head of *volition*:

Volition, or *to will*, as expressive of the exercise of *Volition*, in a philosophical sense, may be considered as comprehending the following particulars: It implies some leading principle of action;—Incitement or Inducement to perform a certain act;—a Desire or Inclination formed by this inducement;—Ability to act according to the desire or inclination inspired;—the Motive which proved influential in determining the mind;—the Determination itself,—and the final Act.

Without

Without every one of these, no act of philosophical Volition could take place.'

We are not acquainted with any analysis of this grand mental process, so full and satisfactory as that which is given by Dr. C. It soars more above practice than any other part of the volume; and it will engage the attention of speculative metaphysicians. We shall not undertake to appreciate the following distinction made by the author, but we deem it of sufficient importance to invite our more intelligent readers to a careful perusal of it: only remarking that he has neatly discriminated between *inducement* and *motive*.

'All Incitements and Inducements are not equally efficient. Some are simply operative in giving a certain bent and inclination to the mind; while others lead to the determination which produces the act itself. They both agree in exciting dispositions and propensities; but those of the latter class are predominant, and produce the very act which we term an act of Volition.

'We shall venture to distinguish the latter class, by the appellation of *Motives*, because, if the above statement be admitted, it clearly points out a philosophical distinction between a *Motive* and an *Incitement* or an *Inducement*. It shews that there is a place for each, and marks the boundaries of each. A mere *Incitement*, or *Inducement*, simply disposes the mind to act by raising desires; that which is become a *Motive* finally determines the mind, which in this connection is called the *Will*, to act in a particular manner, without which the action would not have been performed. The distinctions themselves exist. This cannot be controverted; and the terms selected to express each, both from their etymology and general signification, are best adapted to characterize them, by pointing out subsisting differences. The one, *Inducement*, best expresses that which acts upon the mind, producing the *Inclination*; the other, *Motive*, best expresses that incitement or inducement which by gaining the ascendancy, finally had the power of determining the will. Thus, philosophically speaking, there cannot be two *opposite Motives*, the one impelling the mind to act, and the other restraining it from acting. There may be various reasons, considerations, and inducements, which by their contrarieties, will hold the mind in suspense, and prevent the determination; but that which has finally triumphed, and produced the decision of the will, has been the *Motive*. Where many considerations have united to influence the particular decision, the union of their powers will have induced the mind to yield to this influence, with greater promptitude; and thus we may be induced by *several motives* to perform the same action; but we cannot be influenced by contrary *Motives* to act, and not to act at the same instant. If no opposition should occur to the desires or inclinations which exciting causes have implanted, the pleasure to be enjoyed by satisfying the desire, will prove a *Motive*; and in such cases the inclination and the motive are one. But if considerations or inducements of a stronger nature, suppress the first impulse, and determine the

the will, these become the *Motives*, and the others remain under the description of *Incitements* or *Inducements*. Under an inducement the resolution is forming, the mind is powerfully led towards the object; but still it is not decisive like a *Motive*. In every *Motive* we have been induced, by certain considerations; but we may have had strong inducements to act in one manner, which have been over-ruled by stronger inducements, which form the *Motives* to act in a different manner.

‘It is usual in philosophical disputes concerning the freedom of the will, to assert that the *strongest motives will prevail*. If the above distinctions be admitted, the assertion will appear to be inaccurate or superfluous. That which determines the will becomes the *Motive* by being the strongest inducement, and the efficient cause. So that, the motive does not prevail because it is the *strongest*, considered in competition with other *Motives*; but it manifests its strength by its *prevalence*; that is by its becoming the *Motive*.

‘We might illustrate and confirm these ideas, by adducing numberless modes of speech in familiar discourse, which perfectly correspond with them. But an instance or two shall suffice. Were any one to assert that “he had very strong *motives* for residing in the country, in preference to town,” we should naturally suppose that he was already resident in the country, or that the resolution was taken. But this inference is not so immediately attached to the declaration that “he was strongly *induced* to reside in the country;” for we might still suppose that he was prevented by important motives. From this example, it is evident, that we feel an impropriety in calling that a *motive* which was uninfluential, or was not productive of the correspondent act. When an act is performed, we may with equal propriety ask what was the *motive* or *inducement*? because they both operated in the same directions; and the inducement, unopposed, became the *Motive*; but we never inquire what was the *Motive* of an inefficient propensity, which was over-ruled by other considerations. Nor do we apply the word *Motive* to any train of thoughts which have not been productive of action. It is more pertinent to say, what were your *Reasons* or *Inducements* for indulging such strange thoughts, than, what could be your *Motives*. But if these strange thoughts lead to strange actions, the inquiry into the *Motive* of action would be conformable both to strict propriety, and common usage.’

‘Able as the author elucidates the topic of volition, his readers will not find it an easy matter to ascertain to which of the parties he belongs who are at variance on the topic of free-will. Expressions favourable to each are used by him: but, from omissions rather than from assertions, we are inclined to place him in the class of those who are termed necessitarians.

Early in his third disquisition, Dr. C. observes that,

‘It is very extraordinary that, although the possession of Good be the incessant desire of every individual, mankind in general take so little

little pains to form adequate notions of this good ; to examine minutely in what it consists, and by what specific means it can be obtained. They appear to give themselves up entirely to the chance of receiving different impressions from surrounding objects, as they pass through life ; or they permit the strong and vigorous influence of present objects, to be their sole guides ; and, it is with difficulty they are convinced by experience itself, that the dissatisfactions and vexations they suffer, proceed from the seductions of these guides. They eagerly pursue the more immediate, or most agreeable sensations arising from the gratification of their appetites, and the indulgence of the prevalent passion, without calculating the sum of good or evil which will be the probable result.

‘ It is surely of the first importance, that we entertain just ideas of that for which we are all anxious ; that we ascertain in what Well-being consists ; the degrees of felicity human nature is rendered capable of possessing ; and the sources from whence alone they are derived, preparatory to our pursuit of the means we consider as adapted to the end.’

To assist in such an inquiry is the object of this part of the work ; and the plan which the author pursues for that purpose is thus introduced :

‘ To be the better enabled to form a genuine estimate of that which all men pursue, it will be proper to collect together some of the leading characteristics of Well-being, state its various degrees, examine the specific nature and qualities of the means pursued in order to obtain the end ; and trace their peculiar adaptation to the nature and constitution of Man. In our Analytical View of the Passions, some of these subjects have been occasionally noticed, but as our observations were cursorily made in various connections, and for various purposes, it will be necessary to treat them in a more connected and ample manner, and enter minutely into various particulars, which have not as yet demanded our attention.

‘ In the pursuit of this object, we shall, in the present Disquisition, observe the following order :

‘ First, we shall make some observations on the nature of Well-being, and the degrees of Well-being attainable by Man.

‘ In the next place, examine the various sources of Well-being, and investigate the specific character of each.

‘ The above inquiries will be introductory to some observations respecting the progressive nature of Well-being ; and also

‘ To an examination of the nature, and causes of human misery.’

The notions which Dr. C. entertains on this subject are more in unison with the doctrines of the Stoics, than with those which were professed by the most refined followers of Epicurus. His idea of individual happiness seems not only more friendly to the interests of society, but more accordant with the unsophisticated feelings of the well-trained mind, than the representations of the disciples of the latter school.

In conclusion, we must observe that the philosophy of Dr. Cogan is of the most respectable and beneficent species: it prefers practice to speculation; if it be observant of the caution and reserve that are inseparable from its nature, it is not fond of throwing difficulties in the way of the best hopes and consolations of mankind; nor does it condemn the office of zealously vindicating that benign providence under which we live, and asserting the existence and attributes of its divine source. While, however, we applaud the zeal which leads Dr. C. so severely to censure the sage of Ferney, we must add that, for the moment, he kept not in his eye the author of *Merope* and *Mahomet*, and the intrepid foe of religious persecution, whose genius disarmed intolerance. The anecdotes here related of Voltaire, if true, would prove little; and it is not to be disputed that there have been unbelievers who have died with composure, while gloom has pervaded the last moments of some of the best of christians. The respective systems, we conceive, are little affected by such events, which prove only the diversity of strength in the mind of man.

ART. XI. *Archæologia: or Miscellaneous Tracts, published by the Society of Antiquaries. Vol. XV.*

[*Art. concluded from p. 287.*]

IT has been shewn by Dr. Middleton in his celebrated *"Letters from Rome,"* that the Popish Ceremonies observed by the modern Italians originate in those of their Pagan ancestors. The priests of the new religion artfully endeavoured to accommodate themselves to the prejudices of those who were attached, by habit, to the antient superstitions of their country; and we cannot be much surprized at this circumstance, when we perceive how tenacious all people are of antient customs and festivals; especially if any religious idea be connected with them.—The *Feast of Fools*, which is the subject of a paper in this volume by Francis Douce, Esq. affords an instance in addition to those which have been mentioned by Middleton and others. This degrading institution appears to have supplied the place of the Roman *Saturnalia* celebrated at the close of the year, or in the month of December. It is said soon to have made its way into England; and we are told that, about the year 1240, in the reign of Henry III., Grosthead, then bishop of Lincoln, reprehended it with just severity: but the observation of it continued in different parts of this country for many years, and possibly some traces of it are yet to be found. Mr. Douce's

Douce's dissertation is accompanied by engravings of a necklace, consisting of thirty five pieces of wood, so contrived as to let into each other, by which means it assumes a circular form: on these, it are added, are carved a variety of ludicrous and grotesque figures, consisting of fools, tumblers, huntsmen, and animals*; with others that, from their licentiousness, do not admit of a particular description, but which may refer to the *feast of fools*.

It proves sometimes a very useful employment to correct the mistakes of historical writers: but much attention, diligence, and accuracy are requisite for the purpose; and these are manifested by F. Damiani, in his *Memoir on the Vicissitudes of the Principality of Antioch, during the Crusades*.—To several readers, the disquisition will be interesting and acceptable, though it can receive from us only this short notice.

Dr. Vincent, Dean of Westminster, communicates *Extracts from an ancient MS. concerning the Manor of Paddington, Middlesex*, which has been found among the Westminster archives, and serves to display the false notions of christianity, and of religion in general, that prevailed at the time. Walter, abbot of Westminster, is said to have died in the year 1191; the manor of Paddington was assigned for the celebration of his anniversary; and we are here made acquainted with the form ordered for the purpose. The grant, which originated in folly, now affords amusement: but much waste and extravagance are here discovered for very little benefit, and, we may reasonably conclude, to pernicious effect.—‘The great tankard of twenty-five quarts’ may perhaps create a smile†.—A translation of the original Latin accompanies this article, for the assistance of general readers.

Silver, gold, and precious stones, present themselves abundantly in *An Inventory and Appraisement of the Plate of the Lower Jewel-house of the Tower, Anno 1649*. This paper was produced by the late Rev. John Brand, Secretary, from the original MS. in his possession. To those which belonged to the *lower*, we find here added a like account of the *upper* house of the Tower of the same date, together also with an ‘Inventory of that Part of the Regalia, which were then removed from Westminster to the Tower Jewel-house.’ The amount of the whole is 14,221l. 15s. 4d. Among other curiosities, ‘the unicorn’s hornes, valued at 600l.’ seem to excite particular attention. ‘King Alfred’s crowne, of gould wyer-

* Bearing a striking similitude to the sculptures on the seats of stalls in cathedrals and monastic buildings.

† *In magna tankardo xxv. lagonarum cervisia.*

work, set with slight stones and two little bells, and valued at 248l: 10s., if it really belonged to him, was a curiosity which could not fail of attracting notice in this country. That great man considered the welfare and comfort of the people under his care as his happiness and treasure. The catalogues here exhibited will entertain a great number of readers.

It is not easy for us to give a clear and circumstantial relation of *Observations on the Monument in Canterbury Cathedral, called the Tomb of Theobald, with an Account of two ancient Inscriptions in Lead, discovered in that Cathedral*; by Henry Boys, Esq. This Theobald was the archbishop immediately preceding the famous Becket. Of the two leaden inscriptions, well executed prints are here furnished. One of them relates to the above Theobald.

The Discovery and Interment of the Heart of Arthur, Lord Capel, is communicated by the Rev. Anthony Hamilton, Hadham, Herts. Dr. Stanly, dean of St. Asaph, possessed the benefice of Hadham from the year 1690 to 1722, and was much in the confidence of the Essex family; and the charter-room, as it was styled, at Hadham-hall, was in a particular manner intrusted to his inspection. Here he discovered a silver cup and cover, with a written declaration that it contained the *heart* above-mentioned, said to be preserved in order that, on the restoration of the family, it might be interred with the body of Charles the first. Under the direction of the descendants, however, the silver cup was sold, the money was given to the poor, and the *heart* was lodged in an iron box and deposited in the Vault at the church of Little Hadham. This transaction seems to have taken place somewhere about the year 1703; and the Society have judged it proper that the short and rather imperfect Memoir of Mr. H. should be inserted in the present volume.

A very brief relation follows the above, of *An engraved Brass Plate from Netley Abbey*, by John Latham, M.D.—This brass plate measures about nineteen inches square, weighs ten pounds, and was found in a poor man's house, where it served for the back of a grate. The Doctor seems to have no doubt of its having been brought from the above named spot: it is now clear and bright: but it may perplex antiquaries in this line to develope the family to which it belonged, or what is intended by its numerous devices. The labels proceeding from the mouths of the man and the woman may possibly allude to Ps. 27, verses 4 and 8.

Good sense, observation, and learning of a particular kind are manifested in *Conjectures respecting the ancient Sculptures and Inscriptions on two Pillars in the Abbey Church of Rumsey*, by

William Latham, Esq. The subject has undergone some attentive discussions in the last of these volumes, which are noticed with respect and deference, and the additional remarks here offered are ingenious. In the conclusion of the essay, the propriety of spelling the name of this town, Remsey, is called in question, since the writers of antiquity all agree in terming it Rumsey.

The Dormitory of the Cathedral-monastery of Norwich receives some notices from F. Sayers, M.D. In the year 1744 this building was converted into a work-house, and in 1804 it was demolished: the roof is said to have been very beautiful.

Remarks on the Fortresses of ancient Greece are presented by William Hamilton, Esq. junior. This gentleman has visited the country, and may therefore be supposed qualified to write and describe with accuracy. His observations chiefly relate to the most remote periods, and to walls which are reported to have been raised by the Cyclops.

‘ Their massiveness, their solidity; and their extent, the many ages through which they have resisted the destructive influence of time and the seasons, are so many assisting circumstances to ensure them the admiration and wonder of all who visit them, without the carelessness of ignorance. In a geographical point of view, they have a peculiar interest, as they serve to mark out, indisputably, the sites of many ancient towns, of which we should in vain have sought for any other type. In the greater part of these, every other relic of human habitation, every other specimen of the handy work of man, is annihilated; huge unformed rocks seem to have usurped the places of dwelling-houses, and for miles around, all is shapeless, and in its brute form, except these walls, and the massive blocks of which they consist.’

This attentive traveller proceeds to illustrate his subject in different instances. We are also informed that monuments of this kind, and of similar antiquity, occur in Asia Minor, particularly among the Ionian and Æolic colonies. These walls, composed of irregular masses of rock, some of which measure six feet every way, are 25 feet thick, of solid masonry.

‘ Arches,’ Mr. H. says, ‘ were unknown to the Greeks; the doorways and windows are surmounted by single architraves.’ He reports, moreover, in a note, that ‘ the only specimen of an arch which he had seen in the Grecian buildings was a doorway of a small detached fort on a rock above Ephesus, where it seems to have been hewn out of the solid wall, in the form of a gothic arch.’ It is probable that this perforation was not executed by the Greeks.

Mr. H. concludes his paper with the mention of two very important objects to the antiquary and the historian, viz. the
Phocian

Phœcian wall, which extended from the pass of Thermopylæ to the gulph of Crissa, and some traces of which are still to be found; and the *Lacedæmonian wall*, built across the isthmus of Corinth, which is still very entire, in its whole extent of six miles.

We are now led back to the topic which had been, as already related, slightly considered by Dr. Sayers, and on which two additional articles make their appearance, under the following titles:—‘*Observations on the Remains of the Dormitory and Refectory which stood on the southern Side of the Cloisters of the Cathedral Church of Norwich, by the Rev. W. Gibson, A. M.*’ and ‘*Description of the ancient Building at Norwich, which is the Subject of the preceding Paper, by John Adey Repton, Esq.*’—The last of these papers is attended by three plates, affording the reader a plan or ground-plot of the building before it was destroyed. The shaft, with the capitals and bases of pillars, apparently much recommend the workmanship of the period in which it was performed*; ‘the shafts of the columns are plain: the capitals, highly enriched and ornamented by painting and gilding, and the arches are painted only.’

Barrows, which have so often employed the pages of this work, still continue objects of scrutiny. We are here required to mention, *Farther Account of Tumuli opened in Wiltshire; in a Letter from Mr. William Cunnington*.—In one of the four here enumerated, was discovered, besides human skeletons and bones of animals, &c. a large handsome cup, holding two quarts, with a smaller one near it; and in another, a two edged sword, an iron spear and buckle of the same metal, the umbo of a shield, a piece of leather, a strip of brass, a knife, &c. Mr. Cunnington regards all these barrows as the *tumuli* of Britons.

Copies of Writs preserved among his Majesty's Records in the Tower, from King Edward the First, to the Chief Justice of Chester, and the Bishop of Carlisle on Occasion of the Marriage of the King's eldest Daughter. Communicated by Samuel Lysons, Esq.—Many of these Latin writs, directed to different persons and places, were lodged together with the two which are here specified. This king's eldest daughter, named Eleanor, had been before espoused by proxy to Alphonso III. king of Arragon, who died, A. D. 1291, before the solemnization of the marriage. ‘In what is styled the *liberate roll* of the year, 1294,’ we are told, ‘there is an order from the king dated at Winterbourne the 1st October, for the payment to the Earl of Barr of his daughter Eleanor's marriage portion of ten thousand marks, on his giving a receipt for it by his letters patent.’ From the

* Somewhere about the year 1100.

same gentleman, we receive *Extracts from the Rotulus Familie in the eighteenth Year of K. Edward I., preserved among his Majesty's Records in the Tower, with a Translation and Notes by Mr. Brand.* The expences of the King's family, according to this account, seem to have been, on an average, about twenty pounds per month; and we are told that its present value may be estimated at about five hundred and fifty pounds of our money. 'The family must here be understood exclusively of the king and queen, who appear to have been resident elsewhere during the time included in this Roll; it probably consisted of at least six princes and princesses.'

It is with some persons a subject of complaint that Antiquaries have not, with sufficient clearness and certainty, determined what is meant by Gothic architecture: which leads them to think of the rude people who in distant times issued forth, spreading terror and devastation. The term continues to be used, whatever may be its purport; and we have here an *Account of some Remains of Gothic Architecture in Italy and Sicily, by Robert Smirke, Esq. junior, inserted in a letter to Mr. Lysons.* It is properly remarked that, in Germany, examples of this kind are numerous and splendid; there are many also in Italy, but they are generally in a more mixed and unformed character of design. Four specimens are here presented to our notice: one is a window in the cathedral church of Messina, in Sicily, which has fortunately been spared by the earthquakes; another is part of the baptistery of Pisa, built from the designs of Diotisalvi in the year 1152; a third represents the west side of the interior of the Campo Santo, or cemetery of Pisa; and a fourth drawing illustrates some parts of the preceding. The engravings for this article deserve praise.

Observations on the foregoing Paper respecting the remains of Gothic Architecture in Italy, by Sir H. C. Englefield, Bart., immediately follow, containing judicious strictures on Mr. S.'s communication. Sir Harry thinks that the Gothic specimens, adduced by Mr. Smirke, are additions of a date posterior to the original edifices; and he gives several reasons in support of his opinion. Mr. Smirke, however, in a subsequent paper intitled '*Farther Remarks,*' while he feels himself honoured by the learned Baronet's remarks, states the grounds on which he is led to believe that the edifices, which he has noticed as containing features of Gothic architecture, have not undergone those changes in decoration which Sir Harry supposes; and he strengthens his hypothesis by other specimens, especially of the upper part of the West front of the Cathedral of Pisa, and of the Tower of the church of Li Frari at Venice: the whole of which tower must evidently have been executed at the same time, viz. in the year 1234.

We

We now arrive at the 39th and last of the articles in this volume, containing *Remarks on the Seal of the Bailiffs of the Liberty of Bridgenorth*, by Francis Townsend, Esq. Windsor Herald. All that we deem it requisite to specify from this paper is a short paragraph from an entry said to have been made by the Heralds at their visitation of the county of Salop, in 1623; "the towne of *Bruges*, in the Countie of Salop, aunciently so called, but of later times corruptly nominated *Brugenorth* or *Brugge-north*, when indeed that attribute of *North* ought to be *Morse*, as standing on the side of the Forest of *Morse* in the said Countie." This alteration of the name, however, Mr. Townsend seems to dispute.

The *Appendix*, exclusive of an enumeration of presents to the Society, &c., contains between 20 and 30 pages; and out of the number of prints, twenty-one may be said to relate to subjects of importance. Indeed, most, if not all of them, are worthy of attention, though some more than others, viz. inscriptions, urns, Roman pottery, an antient sword, with an antient mould for casting spear-heads, seals, stone-instruments, and a variety of other particulars.—Nine fragments of Roman utensils in silver, enriched with sculpture, found in Northumberland, are exhibited by Sir H. C. Englefield, and are pronounced to have been the handles of dishes of different kinds, some about the time of Septimius Severus, and others of Domitian.

Two original writs of privy seal shew the mode adopted by Charles I. in the beginning of his reign, to obtain money from his subjects, under pretence of a loan, and the imitation of it by the Republican party. 'There is this difference,' remarks Wm. Bray, Esq. 'in the wording of the writ, that the king *requires*, the Parliament *desires*.'

Craven Ord, Esq. laid before the Society three curious old paintings from Olivers, the seat of the Eldred family, in the county of Essex. One of them represents a terrestrial globe, marked with the equinoctial line, tropics of Capricorn and Cancer, America, &c., with the following inscription: "Thomas Eldred went out of Plimmouthe 1586 July 21, and sailed about the whole globe, and arrived againe in Plimmouthe the 9 of September 1588. What can seeme great to him that hath scene the whole world and the wondrous works therein, save the Maker of it, and the world above it." This Thomas Eldred sailed round the world, (in what capacity it does not appear,) with the famous navigator, "Master Candish, of Trimley in the Countie of Suffolk, Esq." whose voyage is given in Hackluyt's collection, vol. 3d. p. 803,—"We departed out of Plimmouth, (it is farther said,) on Thursday the 21st of July 1586, with three sayles, to wit, the *Desire*, a Ship of 120

Tunnes; the Content of 60 Tunnes; and the Hugh Gallant, a Bark of 40 Tunnes, in which small Fleete were 123 persons of all sortes, with all kinde of Furniture and Victuals sufficient for the space of two yeares." At the end of the memorial, it is added; "The 9th of September, 1588, after a terrible tempest, which carried away most part of our sailes, by the merciful favour of the Almighty, we recovered our long-wished port of Plimouth in England, from whence we set foorth at the beginning of our voyage." — A fine engraving is here given of *one of the Eldred family*, from an original painting supposed to represent this Thomas Eldred; though others consider it as intended for John Eldred, *another great traveller of this family*, of whose voyage to Tripolis, in Syria, by sea, and thence by land and river to Babylon, an account is also given by Hackluyt *. Of this last navigator, we are farther told, from an inscription under a stone bust, in Great Saxham church,—"New Buckingham in Norfolke was his first Being: in Babilon hee spent some parte of his time, and the rest of his earthly pilgrimage hee spent in London, and was Alderman of that famous cittee." His age was 80.—From one of the fingers in the above portrait is suspended a circular dial, 'commonly called equinoctial or universal.'

A strange, but polished and well wrought stone, found fourteen feet beneath the surface in the island of Dominica, affords room for much inquiry, though to little purpose. Doctor James Clarke might well say, 'I am at a loss to form any probable conjecture respecting the emblem or figure of this stone, or for what purpose it had been cut out, unless it was intended to represent some heathen deity, or object of worship.' This is no improbable supposition; and he concludes that, finely polished as it is, it was the workmanship of the Charaibes, or Aborigines of that island.

A brief account is given, by the Dean of Raphoe, of some caves discovered in the parish of Kilslevy, county of Armagh, Ireland, attended by four plates; the last of which affords a distinct view of the whole. They seem to have formed an antient temple.

The volume finishes by the description of an antient silver fork,* furnished by the Rev. John Brand; its date is 1610, before which time the use of this convenient and cleanly article was not general in England. Ivory sticks seem by some people to have been employed for the purpose. We recollect that Sir John Chardin mentions the difficulty which he found, when in Mingrelia, in managing these imperfect instruments, which the natives handled with great readiness.

Different readers, who are disposed to inquire, to examine, and to attend, will doubtless derive considerable information and entertainment from the addition which this Society has here made to its publications. A few inaccuracies of language might be pointed out, but they do not require particular notice. The plates, which cannot fail of imparting amusement and pleasure, amount in number to forty-six.

ART. XII. *The Oriental Voyager*; or descriptive Sketches and cursory Remarks, on a Voyage to India and China in his Majesty's Ship *Caroline*, performed in the Years 1803-4-5-6. Interspersed with Extracts from the best modern Voyages and Travels. The Whole intended to exhibit a topographical and picturesque Sketch of all the principal Places, which are annually or occasionally visited by our East India and China Fleets. The Routes to and from India illustrated by the Tracks of his Majesty's Ships *Caroline* and *Medusa*, correctly set off on a Chart extending from the British Isles to Canton. By J. Johnson, Esq; Surgeon in the Royal Navy. 8vo. pp. 388. 10s. 6d. Boards. Asperne. 1807.

THIS performance is composed partly of original Sketches and remarks by the author himself, and partly of extracts from the works of other voyagers. Mr. Johnson's sole object in publishing it is 'to furnish the young voyager with an agreeable and useful companion on his first visits to the oriental world,' and not either to amuse or to instruct the critic or the man of learning. In selecting such passages from the most reputable voyages and travels, as are descriptive of those places which he had not himself an opportunity of visiting, he has not attempted to introduce them as his own, but has distinguished them as quotations and has affixed to each its authority.

Mr. J. leads his reader a round of more than forty thousand miles; and though he is aware that many of his descriptions, in his voyage to India and China, have been anticipated by other writers, he wishes it to be remembered that their accounts are scattered through various expensive works, were written a number of years ago, and are surrounded by a great variety of matter which cannot be either instructive or interesting to a cursory visitor of the East. The circumstances, however, which give him a just claim to approbation, and must insure to his volume a favourable reception, particularly from persons of the naval profession, are more especially these. In order to impress on the minds of the younger classes of this description of people, a just sense of the advantages of regularity, temperance, and morality in

hot and tropical climates, he has introduced faithful pictures, drawn from life, and from death also, of the consequences of indulgence in an opposite system; and he has added various observations on the local diseases of such climates, and the means of preserving health in them. He has also prefixed a chart, exhibiting very distinctly the tracts of His Majesty's frigates *Caroline*, outward bound to India, and the *Medusa*, on her voyage home*.

When speaking of the mortality that prevailed in November 1803 on board of our Indiamen lying in the river Hoogly, Mr. J. makes the following just observations:

‘ While waiting for the tide at Culpee, and Diamond Harbour, both situated on the eastern bank of the Hoogly, we visited several of the Indiamen lying there, where a great mortality prevailed among the European seamen. This is the case almost every year, especially in the months of July and August, at and after the great periodical rains, that fall in Bengal about this time; when many a hardy tar, after weathering various toils and dangers, is here cut off in a few days, nay, hours, by a violent fever, which is endemic at these periods. The rivers, swelled by this annual deluge, sweep down great quantities of dead animal and vegetable substances, which, at the fall of the tide, lie on their low muddy banks, exposed to the meridian sun, whose beams draw up their putrid exhalations in the course of the day; and these being wafted on board the ships by the light land breeze, produce, in conjunction with the intense heat of the climate, the most dangerous fevers. They generally begin with delirium, high fever, great thirst, heat and anxiety, with often a bilious vomiting, which is a very troublesome and dangerous symptom. This fever frequently kills in the course of the third day, unless the patient's mouth can be affected by mercury before that time. This wonderful medicine is considered here as the sheet anchor in this and many other diseases; and therefore they throw it into the system as fast as possible, after the disorder appears, both internally and by frictions, until a ptyalism comes on, when they pronounce them out of danger. Numbers, however, both officers and men, were daily falling sacrifices to this baleful and unhealthy spot. It is found that *the farther down the river, the less sickness prevails*; and that consequently Saugur road is the healthiest anchorage in the Hoogly. Here it is that the good effects of temperance will become eminently conspicuous.

‘ I well know how frequently youngsters are led astray by those insidious tales related by veterans of the bottle; who represent to them that the surest method of escaping sickness in unhealthy situations, is, (using one of their own expressions,) to carry on the war! But, alas! how many of them find, when it is too late, that they have only been waging war against their own constitutions; and, in fact,

* This is the voyage which we mentioned in our last Number p. 239. as being so remarkably rapid, and it was from p. 387. of this volume that we then stated the circumstances of it.

placing

placing a destructive weapon in the hands of their enemy, the climate, which will sooner or later cut their own thread of existence!

‘ And here, too, let me most strenuously caution the young voyager, to beware of those votaries of *Venus*, who are so numerous in every town and village on the banks of this river, as well as on all the shores of India, and I may add England. The siren’s song was not more fatal to the deluded Sicilian mariner of old, than is the contaminated embrace of a modern Cytherean, to the young European, embarking on a long voyage.

‘ A gentleman of the author’s acquaintance lost his life in this very place, in consequence of an act committed in an *unguarded moment*. He had exchanged into a ship that was returning to England, and while she lay at this anchorage, he had “stepped aside from the paths of virtue;” the consequence of which was, that in the anxiety to get clear of his complaint before the ship sailed, the medicines operated so powerfully on a weak constitution, that he fell into a fever, and died; leaving, let me painfully add, a wife and orphan in England, to bewail his loss.—The author would not have related this fact, but in hopes that such a fatal *example* may have a greater effect than any *precept*, in deterring young men from running the chance of ruining their own constitution for a momentary sensual gratification.’

The subsequent remarks may prove very useful to navigators:

‘ During our stay in the Ganges, and on our cruise to Rangoon, we experienced considerable sickness on board the ship; especially in the month of October, when there were often so many as fifty or sixty men in the sick list at a time, chiefly with dysenteries, intermitting and remitting fevers. Still, though fresh from Europe, we did not lose men in proportion to the Indiamen; the difference of situation, and the hard labour which the men are obliged to perform on board the latter description of ships, can only account for this circumstance. We here witnessed the astonishing effects of mercury, which is a cure for almost every disease in this climate; for no sooner does it begin to salivate, than there is a remission of all the symptoms in dysenteries, fevers, &c. which many of us experienced with no small degree of satisfaction, very few of us having escaped an attack from one or other of these complaints.

‘ It appears that Kedgerree is a healthier situation than Diamond harbour, and therefore men of war should always bring up at that place, having no particular business with one part of the river more than another. His Majesty’s ships *Howe* and *Medusa*, by lying at Diamond harbour afterwards, suffered more than *eight times the loss* which we sustained at Kedgerree. This may be owing to the proximity of the anchorage at Diamond harbour, to the low swampy shores about that place, where a number of rivulets open into the stream of the Hoogly, and bring down from the country great quantities of putrid substances, that lie along the banks at low water, emitting the most offensive vapours. At Kedgerree and Saugur roads, therefore, men of war have not only the advantage of lying at a greater distance

distance from the shore, but the mouth of the river being here from eight to fourteen miles in breadth, there is consequently a much greater circulation of air; while stores and other necessaries are brought down in the country craft, equally as well as if the ship lay at Diamond harbour. In short, nothing but bad weather, or the necessity of having the ship docked, should induce a man of war to go higher up than Kedgerie; the inconvenience to the officers, arising from the great distance between the ship and Calcutta, being of very small consideration, compared with the health of the ship's company. I was informed that those ships which lay directly abreast of any of the creeks, were always more sickly than the others: this is a hint worth attending to, when bringing the ship to her moorings. The water too with which ships of war, &c. are supplied at Bengal, is generally taken up from the Ganges, some way above Calcutta, and is consequently full of slime and other feculence, that frequently occasion fluxes and bowel complaints among the people, unless it be suffered to stand for some time, and then the clear part gently pumped off from the turbid, into fresh casks: this will not only render it a pleasant beverage, but obviate a great deal of sickness and discontent among the ship's company.'

Mr. Johnson states that the principal diseases among our seamen in China, in October 1804, were intermittent fevers, fluxes, and some liver-complaints; and that in the ship to which he belonged, from sixty to eighty men at a time were often unable to do duty, though no particular cause could be assigned for their being so unhealthy, except the sudden transition from an Indian climate to that of China. He says that, on board the *Grampus* and *Caroline*, when the Bark was all expended on the numerous agues and different kinds of intermittents, the surgeons had recourse to Calomel, which repelled the diseases: but that those persons, who were thus relieved, were almost invariably attacked again when the influence of the *Mercury* had subsided; whereas such a recurrence seldom happened to those who were cured by Bark. His observation also led him to conclude that, in India and in China, the higher a ship proceeds up a river the more likely she is to become sickly.—The liver-complaint, he says, is much more frequent in the East Indies than in any other tropical climate; and he offers copious remarks on this dangerous disease, on the principal causes of it, and on the mode of treatment calculated for conquering it when it is attacked in due season: but they are too extensive for our insertion.

Much useful information and many judicious hints may be collected from this volume; as well as a considerable share of picturesque description, intermixed with poetical quotations and some original compositions, which prove that the author can occasionally relax from professional studies. The verses at p. 232 have considerable poetic merit, as well as good moral tendency.

ART. XIII. *Curialia*: or, An Historical Account of some Branches of the Royal Household, &c. &c. Parts IV. and V. In Two Letters addressed to the President of the Society of Antiquaries, from Samuel Pegge, Esq., F.S.A. 4to. pp. 104. 14s. sewed. Nichols and Son.

WE must ask leave to send our readers a considerable way back, in regard to the former parts of this work. If they will attend to the references given below*, they may obtain sufficient information concerning the nature of this production, together with the motives and design of its respectable author. He is now no more: but Mr. Nichols assures us that 'the publication of these collections is strictly conformable to the testamentary wishes of their author, who consigned them for that express purpose to him their present editor.'

The first of the letters before us presents the history of Somerset House, (Strand, London,) from its erection in 1549; and Mr. Pegge has manifested great industry and accurate inquiry, in preparing this tract for public view. One part of his design is to remove, or at least to extenuate, those heavy charges of sacrilege, oppression, and injustice, with which the character and memory of the Duke of Somerset have been loaded. It is well known that he was uncle to Edward VI.; and in addition to other high titles and dignities to which he had been advanced by Henry VIII., he was, during his nephew's minority, appointed governor of his person and protector of his realm. He was naturally ambitious; and amid such and other incentives, he might be seduced into very rash, and unjustifiable measures. He was also a Protestant; and the abettors of Popery have not failed, as far as they could, to expose him to hatred and infamy. From considerations of this and of a similar kind, Mr. Pegge candidly infers that we should make some abatement of the censure which the Duke has undergone, both as to his general conduct, and as to the demolition of numerous buildings for the erection of that stately edifice which is the subject of present discussion. He conjectures that the Duke might have been already himself in possession of an inferior habitation on the spot; and he enumerates six principal structures, which, among others, were demolished to make way for the superb fabric that his Grace wished to raise, and did raise, but did not entirely finish, and surely could never enjoy.

* See M. Review for July, 1783, Vol. 69. page 16.; and for July, 1785, Vol. 73. page 31.

He is truly presented to us as an instance of the vanity of headstrong and aspiring ambition, and of worldly grandeur! Yet, however criminal he might be, some of his adversaries were much worse: though the policy of courts and statesmen often confounds and overwhelms all just distinctions.

Mr. Pegge proceeds to a description of the dilapidations above mentioned, and of several others more directly of the religious kind; and this is no unentertaining part of the work. As an instance of the pleasantry which here sometimes occurs, we may notice the little anecdote related when speaking of the Episcopal house of the bishop of *Landaff*, once situated here. He very naturally remarks that this See, which had been among the most opulent, was at the reformation pillaged in a singular manner; and he concludes by adding,—‘well; therefore, might Bishop Babington, who was consecrated A. D. 1591, jocularly say, he was only bishop of *Aff*, for that the *Land* had been severed from it*.’

The demolition of the chapel in what was called Pardon-church yard, situated not very distant from the cathedral of St. Paul, is particularly noticed, because ‘the secrets of the grave were laid open:’ for on the removal of bodies there interred, which are said to have been those of the greatest criminals, ‘it appeared that written pardons, drawn up in form by ecclesiastical scriveners and notaries, were actually buried with those who paid competently for them.—Hence, (adds this writer) I am afraid, when Pope Leo X., exultingly, though perhaps unguardedly, consoled himself with the wealth which † *The legendary Tale of Jesus Christ*, as he termed it, had brought to the castle of St. Angelo, that he spoke the sentiments of every occupier of the Papal chair.’

“*Tantum Religio potuit suadere malorum.*”

After the death of the Duke, his noble mansion was vested in the Crown; and it was regarded as the town-residence of Elizabeth, during the life of Queen Mary, though rarely indeed did that Princess make her appearance there. When she herself came to the throne, it was assigned to the Earl of Hertford, son of the late Duke by a second marriage: but it was sufficiently large to have apartments still appropriated to noble strangers and royal visitors. In the succeeding reign, it was a palace for the Queen, who for a length of time entertained

* Harrington's *Nuga Antiqua*, London, 1770, vol. I. 12mo. pp. 150, and 192.

† His expression was, “*Quantas nobis divitias comparavit illa fabula Christi.*” See Rycaut.

there

there Christian IV., her brother, king of Denmark, from which circumstance it received sometimes the appellation of Denmark-house; and from this reign 'it became a jointure house, as soon as occasion rendered it necessary,' for the Queens of England. The author pursues his subject with a description of the structure, &c. &c. in a manner by no means uninteresting or unpleasant; and he continues to urge 'what may be adduced in favour of the Duke,' from all which we incline to believe that the charge against him will 'admit of much diminution,' not merely 'as to demolitions,' but also respecting his general conduct. Mr. P. likewise gives a long inventory of goods, furniture, plate, jewels, paintings, statues, &c. together with seven plates of this palace in its more antient and in modern times. It was finally demolished during the present reign.

Letter II. in this volume is 'A dissertation on the ancient establishment and function of the Serjeant at Arms.' 'Can any persons (says the writer,) with the same professional name suggest four more distinct and incongruous ideas than—A Serjeant at law.—A Serjeant at arms—A Serjeant trumpeter,—and a regimental Serjeant?'—Etymology has its use, though sometimes it is too justly ridiculed and rejected. Perhaps Mr. Pegge is right when he derives the term from *Servians*, (serving,) the French having transmuted the letter *v* into a *g* or *j*, and thus it applies to any kind of Service. The letter is ingenious and learned.

Several additions are here made to former numbers of the *Curialia*.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1808.

EDUCATION.

Art. 14. *Moral Maxims*, from the Wisdom of Jesus the Son of Sirach, or Ecclesiasticus. Selected by a Lady. 12mo. pp. 123. 3s. Boards. Harris. 1807.

THESE maxims are designed for the use of young persons, and are well calculated to exercise them in reading. The elevated and sublime style of Oriental poetry, the excellence of the morality, a clear large type, and pretty engravings, combine to make this a desirable work for young people.

Art. 15. *Arithmetic made easy to the Capacities of Children*; containing five hundred and fifty Examples in the fundamental Rules, the Rule of Three, and Practice; a Variety of promiscuous Questions, and Bills of Parcels; designed as an Introduction to other Systems of Arithmetic. To which is subjoined, an Appendix.

dis containing Arithmetical Tables, &c. By John Thomson. 12mo. 1s. half-bound. Williams and Co. 1807.

Mr. T.'s little work is intended to assist schoolmasters in teaching to the young scholar the more necessary rules of Arithmetic; it is well designed for that purpose; and we consider it as holding the same relation to larger treatises on the subject, which the *Accidence* bears to the *Latin Grammar*.

Art. 16. *A Father's Advice to his Son at School.* 12mo. 1s. Matthews and Leigh. 1807.

Boys at school generally require to be advised respecting the mode of profiting by tuition, and from a want of this direction spend their own time and the money of their parents to little purpose. The author of this letter is fully aware of the rocks on which boys run in the voyage of education; and his hints should be impressed on all who are sent to school. Though originally designed only for his own child, yet, as the advice here given applies to the case of every boy so circumstanced, we are pleased to see it published; and parents, in our judgment, can scarcely put a shilling to a better use than in purchasing a copy of it for the perusal of their sons.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 17. *An affectionate Address to the Parishioners of Blackburn, on the Institution and Observance of the Sabbath:* published for the Benefit of the Sunday Schools in Blackburn. By Thomas Starkie, M. A. Vicar, &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Mr. Starkie contends that, though the Apostles changed both the *name* and the *day* of the Sabbath, they did not destroy the obligation of Christians to keep the 4th commandment: but it seems difficult to say how a strict regard can be paid to a statute when such an innovation or alteration is introduced. However, the *new Sabbath*, as Mr. S. calls the Lord's Day, is an important institution, the advantages of which must be apparent to every reflecting mind; and the zeal which this preacher displays for its profitable observance does him credit.

Art. 18. *Divine Service for the Camp or Garrison, as performed at the Drum Head:* with the Outlines of a few Discourses, or Field Sermons, adapted to the Understanding and Circumstances of the private Soldier. To which is annexed a Sketch of the Form of Consecration of a Stand of Colours. By the Rev. William Henry Pratt, Rector of Jonesborough, in the County of Armagh, &c. 8vo. 1s. Asperne.

That regimental chaplains form no part of our military establishment, at the present time, is a circumstance which excites the regret of this author; who recommends the revival of their appointment, since he has often heard the soldiers deplore the loss of their chaplains in pathetic terms. The service here selected from the Liturgy is short, and the Sermons are still shorter: but the language of them is adapted to the occasion, for it is insinuated that 'the bravest men are the most religious,' and every man is exhorted 'to hold himself in readiness for our last reviewing General.'

The

The ceremony of the consecration of colours is chiefly Mr. Pratt's invention, and the whole is creditable to this *volunteer* Chaplain.

AFFAIRS OF IRELAND.

Art. 19. *A short Address to the Most Rev. and Hon. William, Lord Primate of all Ireland; recommendatory of some Commutation or Modification of the Tythes of that Country: with a few Remarks on the present State of the Irish Church.* By the Rev. H. Bate Dudley, Chancellor and Prebendary of Ferns, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

The fair, manly, and liberal view which Mr. Dudley here takes of the subject of Tithes cannot be too highly applauded. Like a man of sound judgment and discretion, he meets the difficulty of the case, and does not suffer the abstract question of right to divert him from considerations of policy. Aware that the process of collecting tithes is perplexing and harassing in the extreme, he does not hesitate to be the advocate for reform; observing that 'the authority that went so far as to alter in order to amend the ceremonials of the church, may safely exert itself to ameliorate the collection of its revenues.' The only remedy for the evils existing in Ireland, respecting tithes, is by a commutation for lands; and Mr. D. has sketched the following project:

'Let the *tythes* of *Ireland*, as well improper as clerical, be accurately valued by commissioners under parliamentary authority, (due consideration being previously taken of all unsettled modusses, and allowance made for the probable change of lands, from pasturage to tillage,) so as to ascertain the existing annual value of the tythes of all lands, &c. in each parish or union, to be laid as a rent charge thereon.

'Let these estimates of annual value be calculated into a saleable perpetuity, and be made redeemable by purchase within a time limited, by the respective land-proprietors; and in default thereof, such perpetuity of rent-charge to be disposed by public sale, in like manner as the *Land tax* of *England* has recently been alienated from the crown.

'In any case where the purchase-money may not reach the full amount of the estimated value in perpetuity, the same to be made good out of any surplusage arising from other sales of tythes, in which the produce may exceed the commissioners' valuation; or be nationally provided for by the Irish treasury. The amount of all such sales in perpetuity to be appropriated to the purchase of freehold land, or lands to become freehold glebe-property, and to be annexed to the church for ever.

'Wherever sufficient lands cannot conveniently be obtained within the parish or union, other lands to be purchased in any district, or barony, most contiguous thereto.

'The rent-charge in lieu of *tythes* to remain upon the lands, and to be levied upon the proprietor, until the commutation for the whole parish or union is completed.'—

For the adoption of this plan, he offers the following reasons:

• I. Because it goes the necessary length of setting this perplexing question of *tythes* at rest for ever.

• II. Because, unlike the practical operation of other modes, it leaves no opening for pecuniary litigation, the most baneful of all disputes between the Clergy and their parishioners.

• III. Because it would be found a measure of facility in *Ireland*, though not in *England*; the former country having extensive tracts of land at all times applicable to such commutation: and because such an appropriation would afford further national advantage, by opening a new and extensive source of industry, and agricultural improvement.

• IV. Because it would render the clergy of the established church, and their parishioners, respectably independent of each other; enabling the one to enjoy their revenues without deterioration, and relieving the other from the merciless visitations of middlemen, and their dependents.'

• These statements may be fairly left to speak for themselves.

POLITICS.

Art. 20. *Two more Letters* (being the sixth and seventh) *on the Subject of the Catholics*, to my Brother Abraham, who lives in the Country. By Peter Plymley, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Budd.

Art. 21. *The Eighth, Ninth, and Last (the Tenth) Letters on the Subject of the Catholics*, to my Brother Abraham, who lives in the Country. By Peter Plymley, Esq. 2d Edit. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Budd.

Report has assigned these letters to a reverend Gentleman who, in a certain Institution, entertained the fashionable world with lectures on Wit and Humour; and internal evidence might incline us to give credit to the statement, since the writer manifests no ordinary endowment in these playful talents: but we have lately been informed that the idea is erroneous. Whoever he be, however, this P. P. is not less facetious in prose than our old friend the former P. P. was in verse; and by his mode of discussing a subject which is almost worn thread-bare, he has contrived to throw over it the rays of novelty. The dish of Catholic Emancipation is served up by him with true *sauce piquante*; it is in the first style of cookery; and all who know "*what's what*" will applaud his taste and his skill. His wit is argument, and his argument is wit. Intolerance itself must be tickled into a laugh, and bigotry relax the gravity of its muscles, on the perusal of some parts of these pages; the object of which is to shame our Ministers into wisdom, and to convince them, by a strain of vigorous and not common-place reasoning, that their conduct towards the Catholics has not three grains of discretion and sound policy in it. In the writer's estimation, their measures are indeed the very essence of imbecility and ruin; and, under this persuasion, he gives his pen full scope against them.—Brother Abraham's supposed vindication of the attack on Copenhagen draws from Peter the following animadversions:

• The

‘The state of the world, you tell me, justified us in doing this. Just God! do we think only of the state of the world when there is an opportunity for robbery, for murder, and for plunder; and do we forget the state of the world when we are called upon to be wise, and good, and just? Does the state of the world never remind us, that we have four millions of subjects whose injuries we ought to atone for, and whose affections we ought to conciliate? Does the state of the world never warn us to lay aside our infernal bigotry, and to arm every man who acknowledges a God and can grasp a sword? Did it never occur to this administration, that they might virtuously get hold of a force ten times greater than the force of the Danish fleet?’

P. P. ridicules the madness of hazarding the loss of Ireland by invasion; when, by rendering justice to four-fifths of its population, we might defy the enemy:

‘This (says he) is called government, and the people huzza Friar Perceval, for continuing to expose his country day after day to such tremendous perils as these; cursing the men who would have given up a question in theology to have saved us from such a risque.—The British Empire at this moment is in the state of a peach-blossom, if the wind blows gently from one quarter it survives, if furiously from the other it perishes. A stiff breeze may set in from the north, the Rochefort squadron will be taken, and the Friar will be the most holy of men; if it comes from some other point, Ireland is gone, we curse ourselves as a set of monastic madmen, and call out for the empty satisfaction of Mr. Perceval’s head. Such a state of political existence is scarcely credible; it is the action of a mad young fool standing upon one foot and peeping down the crater of Mount *Ætna*, not the conduct of a wise and a sober people deciding upon their best and dearest interests; and in the name, the much injured name of heaven, what is it all for, that we expose ourselves to these dangers? Is it that we may sell more muslin? Is it that we may acquire more territory? Is it that we may strengthen what we have already acquired? No: nothing of all this; but that one set of Irishmen may torture another set of Irishmen; that Sir Phelim O’Callaghan may continue to whip Sir Toby M’Tackle, his next door neighbour, and continue to ravish his catholic daughters; and these are the measures which the honest and consistent Secretary supports; and this is the secretary whose genius in the estimation of brother Abraham is to extinguish the genius of Bonaparte. Pompey was killed by a slave, Goliath smitten by a stripling, Pyrrhus died by the hand of a woman; tremble, thou great Gaul, from whose head an armed Minerva leaps forth in the hour of danger; tremble, then, scourge of God; a pleasant man is come out against thee, and thou shalt be laid low by a joker of jokes, and he shall talk his pleasant talk against thee, and thou shalt be no more!’

A late measure in parliament, on the subject of withholding medicines from the enemy, is thus ludicrously exposed:

‘At what period was this great plan of conquest and constipation fully developed? In whose mind was the idea of destroying the pride, and the plaisters of France first engendered? Without castor-

oil, they might, for some months, to be sure, have carried on a lingering war; but can they do without Bark? Will the people live under a government where antimonial powders cannot be procured? Will they bear the loss of mercury? "There's the rub." Depend upon it, the absence of the *materia medica* will soon bring them to their senses, and the cry of *Bourbon and Bohus* burst forth from the Baltic to the Mediterranean.'

Recapitulating his remarks on the state of Ireland, and on the conduct of ministers in resisting the claims of the Catholics, he plays off the *argumentum ad homines* with great dexterity:

'If a man says I have a good place, and I do not choose to lose it, this mode of arguing upon the Catholic question I can well understand; but that any human being with an understanding two degrees elevated above that of an anabaptist preacher, should conscientiously contend for the expediency, and propriety of leaving the Irish Catholics in their present state, and of subjecting us to such tremendous peril in the present condition of the world, it is utterly out of my power to conceive. Such a measure as the Catholic question is entirely beyond the common game of politics; it is a measure in which all parties ought to acquiesce, in order to preserve the place where, and the stake for which they play. If Ireland is gone, where are jobs? where are reversions? where is my brother, Lord Arden? where are my dear and near relations? The game is up, and the Speaker of the House of Commons will be sent as a present to the menagerie at Paris. We talk of waiting from particular considerations, as if centuries of joy and prosperity were before us: in the next ten years our fate must be decided; we shall know, long before that period, whether we can bear up against the miseries by which we are threatened, or not; and yet, in the very midst of our crisis, we are enjoined to abstain from the most certain means of increasing our strength, and advised to wait for the remedy till the disease is removed by death, or health. And now, instead of the plain, and manly policy of increasing unanimity at home, by equalising rights, and privileges, what is the ignorant, arrogant, and wicked system which has been pursued? Such a career of madness and of folly, was, I believe, never run in so short a period. The vigor of the ministry is like the vigor of a grave-digger, the tomb becomes more ready, and more wide for every effort which they make.'

The peculiar vivacity with which P. P. writes has obtained considerable notice; and as his argument is not less solid than brilliant, we hope that it will have some weight even with those who are the objects of his pleasantry; for a man who indulges the playful Muse should not be angry at being paid in his own coin, nor reject good advice, though, like an epigram, it has a sting in its tail.

Art. 22. *Denmark and Russia*. A Collection of State Papers which have appeared relative to the Danish and Russian Wars; with prefatory Remarks. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway.

In employing the *ultima ratio Regum*, we displayed a forcible sort of logic, which it was not in the power of the poor Danes to resist: but

but our cabinet dialecticians are not so successful with their arguments, as our military men with their cannon, mortars, and fire-rockets. The object of the collector of these State-Papers is to shew that the reasons, which our ministers have assigned in justification of their attack on Denmark, are weak and inconsistent; and that the benefits which we have reaped do not compensate for the credit and honour which we have lost by this measure.

On the score of facts, he tells us that the appraisers, sent down by Government to value the Danish prizes, have reported that they are worth only *eight pounds* a ton; while from *thirty to forty pounds* a ton is the lowest sum ever paid for building ships of war in merchants' yards; that vessels estimated at so low a price can be fit only for hulks; and that, for the sake of obtaining these hulks and a quantity of naval stores, we have lost the affections of the Danes, and thrown every man of them, with all the resources of their country, into the scale of the enemy.

Art. 23. *A Letter from Mr. Paull to Samuel Whitbread, Esq. M. P.*
8vo. 1s. Budd. 1808.

Mr. Paull being excluded from Parliament, his object in this letter to Mr. Whitbread was to urge that gentleman to prosecute the charges which he himself, when a member of the House of Commons, had preferred against Marquis Wellesley. He probably did not flatter himself with the hopes of success: but in this way he endeavoured to calm his disappointed feelings. The pen having proved itself unable to make his *quietus*, he has since desperately had recourse to the *bare bodkin*.

Art. 24. *South American Independence: or the Emancipation of South America, the Glory and Interest of England.* By William Burke, Author of the History of the Campaign of 1805, &c.
8vo. 3s. Ridgway. 1807.

Art. 25. *Additional Reasons for immediately emancipating Spanish America: deduced from the new and extraordinary Circumstances of the present Crisis; and containing valuable Information respecting the late important Events, both at Buenos Ayres, and in the Caraccas; as well as with respect to the present Disposition and Views of the Spanish Americans being intended as a Supplement to "South American Independence."* By William Burke, Author of that Work. 8vo. 3s 6d. Ridgway.

As the religious persecutions, which formerly raged in Europe, served to people and to civilize North America, so it is not improbable that the political convulsions which have recently occurred may contribute to produce the same effects in the southern parts of that vast continent; especially as we have lately heard of the emigration of Royalty to that portion of the globe, a circumstance which may be regarded as a new era in its history. We cannot, however, be of opinion that the effects on which some writers speculate will be so soon or so easily obtained as they, in the reveries of theory, seem to imagine. The European population of South America bears little resemblance to that of the United States; and diffe-

rent views must be entertained by its rulers, and very great changes must be operated among the inhabitants, before an enlightened and promising empire can be established.

In a scheme like that which is proposed in the pamphlets before us, it is needless to discuss the validity of the Spanish claims; they are equally good with those of the Portuguese. The simple question is, can we bring the South Americans to embrace our views; and can we find, in this part of the New World, such a preponderance as shall balance the enormous power of France in Europe? Sanguine visionaries would immediately answer *yes*: but more calculations will enter into the views of the sagacious politician on this head than are to be found "in *their* philosophy." After the recent events at Buenos Ayres, it is not very easy to believe that we should be hailed even in the character of Emancipators; and if we were, it would still remain a question whether we could bear the expence, and the drain to our population, which such an undertaking would require, in order to give it complete success. It is to be apprehended, that the motive of our interference would be suspected; and that Mexico and Peru would not receive with open arms the offer of Independence, "under the directing arm, and nerved by the force of Britain." When we talked of Independence, they would probably suppose that we meant subjugation and dollars. Yet this writer contends for the practicability of our emancipating the Spanish American colonies, and ventures to detail the means of effecting it: but our confidence in him is weakened, when at the outset he tells us that their present conquest would be as easy to us as its original reduction was to the first Spanish invaders. Our attack on Buenos Ayres contradicts this position, and its issue subverts much of the reasoning in the first of these pamphlets. The inferences, deduced in our favour from the oppression of the Indians by the Spaniards, we suspect to be fallacious; and the career of a British army on the American continent might not be so illustrious as it is here delineated.

Undaunted by the result of the Buenos Ayres expedition, however, Mr. Burke, in his second pamphlet, pursues his speculations on the Western Hemisphere, and urges his favourite measure of Emancipation; by which he proposes to create new, independent, and powerful states, out of the reach of our enemy. In order to retrieve our disgrace, he would send another army to Spanish America; not with views of conquest, but to aid these colonies in throwing off their dependence on the mother country. From documents relative to Miranda's expedition to the Caraccas, and from other information, which is deemed important, it is inferred that the Spanish Americans are ready to break their chains: but the evidence here produced is by no means conclusive; nor are we convinced that General Miranda, aided by six or eight thousand British troops in the Caraccas, would become the Washington of South America. Mr. B. seems not to make any estimate of the counter-action which would be produced on bigoted Catholics, by the reflection that we are heretics.

Wild projects of this nature are not perhaps intitled to serious discussion: but we may observe on them in general, that, since our
inter-

interference in South America would probably excite suspicion, and since a new Empire may now be considered as erected in the Brazils, the wisest and safest course which we could pursue, in that quarter of the globe, would be to advise His Majesty of the Brazils to establish a government on more liberal principles than that of Portugal; and to diffuse those privileges and blessings among his subjects, which will propagate the wish from Mexico to Patagonia, that every province were under his sway. Such a measure is preferable to sending 6 or 8000 British troops either to the Caraccas or to La Plata.

Art. 26. *Ins and Outs called to an Account, or the Wrath of John Bull.* 8vo. 2s. Maxwell. 1808.

All parties endeavour to put their hands into John Bull's pocket, and their words into his mouth, and thus to lay both his guineas and his common sense under contribution. According to this report, John is very angry with the late ministry for not sending five or six millions to the Emperor Alexander, and is very ready to be convinced that the outrage on Denmark, committed by the present, admits of justification. In short, Johnny is in the most furious passion with the *Outs*, and discerns in their conduct nothing but folly and crime. A writer on the other side can make him change his tone, and vent his wrath on the *Ins*.—*Ainsi va le monde*.

Art. 27. *A few Observations on the present State of the Nation: in a Letter to his Grace the Duke of Bedford.* By the Rev. F. Randolph, D D. 8vo. pp. 99. 2s. 6d. Wilkie and Robinson. 1808.

National flattery, conceit and arrogance, disregard of painful realities, and unmanly abuse of our enemy, which distinguish so many publications of the day, do not offend in these pages. Dr. R., we think, appreciates the situation of the country fairly and impartially; his sentiments are characterized by soberness and moderation, yet are expressed with energy; and the whole performance is penned in the spirit both of piety and patriotism. Though he discountenances arrogance, he by no means encourages despondency; and while he is the advocate of moderation, he displays zeal for the interests of the country. We wish that the temper which he manifests were more general.

POETRY and the DRAMA.

Art. 28. *The History of Greece, in easy Verse; from the earliest Period to its Conquest by the Romans.* By W. R. Johnson, A. M. Illustrated with a Map. 12mo. pp. 129. 2s. 6d. half bound. Tabart. 1807.

To assist young persons in fixing in their minds the more particular incidents that happened in the several states of Greece is the object of this attempt; and the execution so far answers the design, that the reader will find a concise yet comprehensive history of that celebrated country, expressed in easy numbers: while circumstances which are not related in the verse are occasionally given in explanatory

notes at the bottom of the page. We think, however, that no memory can be expected to retain the whole contents of this little volume.

Art. 29. *The Inferno of Dante Alighieri*, with a Translation in English Blank Verse, Notes, and a Life of the Author. By the Rev. Henry Francis Cary, A.M. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 16s. Boards. Carpenter.

In the first grand requisite of a translator, *fidelity*, Mr. Cary seems to have outstripped his predecessors; for it is seldom indeed that we have been able to detect him in the too common operations of adding to or subtracting from his original. When we add that his versification is generally poetical and harmonious, and that his biographical sketch and notes are expressed with brevity and neatness, we conceive that we have duly appreciated the character of his labours. The introduction to the 24th Canto combines the rare merit of closeness and beauty:

‘ In the year’s early nonage, when the sun
Tempers his tresses in Aquarius’ urn,
And now towards equal day the nights recede,
When as the rime upon the earth puts on
Her dazzling sister’s image, but not long
Her milder sway endures, then riseth up
The village hind, whom fails his wintry store,
And looking out beholds the plain around
All whiten’d, whence impatiently he smites
His thighs, and to his hut returning in,
There paces to and fro, wailing his lot,
As a discomfited and helpless man;
Then comes he forth again, and feels new hope
Spring in his bosom, finding e’en thus soon
The world hath chang’d its coun’nance, grasps his crook,
And forth to pasture drives his little flock:’ &c.

In the event of a second impression, we would recommend the revision of such lines as,

‘ When all unawares is gone, he inwardly’—
‘ Of men, women, and infants. Then to me’—
‘ And pitiless women had slain all their males.’—
‘ Why greedily thus bendest more on me,’—
‘ Fell ruining far as to Minos down,’—
‘ Methinks, and more water between the vale’—
‘ Presented before mine, with similar art
‘ And count’nance similar, so that from both,’ &c.

The cultivators of Italian literature will, we doubt not, exhort Mr. Cary to bestow his leisure and talents on other celebrated effusions of the Tuscan muse.

Art. 30. *Poems by E. Somebody*. 8vo. pp. 115. Dublin, Colbert.

Though none of the compositions in this little volume may claim unmixed applause, the author has in some few specimens displayed so much

much fancy and feeling, and so good an ear for the harmony of numbers, that we are almost tempted to offer him the hazardous counsel of persevering in the walks of poetry. This opinion, however, must be understood as given under the supposition that the whole collection was written when he was under twenty years of age. If the productions are of a later period, they would argue a want of that strength and fullness of mind which are essential to poetical excellence.—The versification is usually smooth, as we before intimated; yet it unaccountably happens that the rhymes are in too many instances no rhymes in England, whatever they may be at Dublin: ex. gr. *fading* and *receding*, *regulators* and *repeaters*, *beams* and *flames*, *air* and *appear*. In a ballad, of which all the four lines of every stanza are made to rhyme, this difference of pronunciation has presented us with an ordinary English stanza consisting of alternate rhymes:

‘ Now pity turns to shun the *tale*
And mercy would the scene *conceal*,
But angry truth withdraws the *veil*;
To curse his child see Walter *kneel*.’

It may also be remarked that these stanzas of four rhymes are extremely wearisome, from the frequent repetition of the same sound. It is, moreover, proper to warn the author, if he wishes to be a poet on the eastern side of the channel, that *burns*, *world*, *hour*, &c. are monosyllables; and we rather apprehend that the cold criticism, which prevails among us, will scarcely allow currency to the phrase,

‘ His absent eye not *seeing* what it *views*,’ (p. 54.)

though it appears to be used too deliberately to fall under the vulgar denomination of an Irish mistake:—at least the author has coolly taken the bull by the horns.

What mode of speech, however, can possibly match *companion* with *dominion*, or *woven* with *Heaven*?

From these specimens, our readers will be inclined to think that our praises have been whimsically bestowed on the author’s versification, and that he is a mere bungler in poetry, without any command over language or skill in combination. Yet we think that the following lines prove that he can write with elegance. They are extracted from an ode to Chance, the idea of which is borrowed from the *Idler*:

‘ For tho’ her (Hope’s) fairy fictions fail,
Tho’ all her gifts the winds have scatter’d,
Still must I listen to her tale,
And trust, as if she ne’er had flatter’d.

‘ But thou, O chance, wilt sometimes give,
Unask’d, unpromis’d, unperceived,
What she ne’er taught me to believe,
With all her wild enchantments aided.

‘ Perhaps while I in simple lays,
To thee an humble tribute bringing,
For me some little leaf of bays,
Planted by thee is somewhere springing.

‘ No painted scenes to thee belong,
 No ‘witching tales, or smiles betraying,
 Then Goddess take this idle Song,
 Thy deeds of kindness ill repaying.’

An address to the Wind, written in December 1805, thus opens:

‘ What would that hollow voice explain,
 In loud and melancholy strain?’

After some inquiries, which are not very clearly expressed, the author proceeds:

‘ Or dost thou come o’er desert lands,
 O’er fierce Arabia’s burning sands;
 O’er pathless waste, and trackless wild,
 Where nature’s verdure never smil’d;
 To tell of human suffering there,
 Of dying groans and faint despair?
 Thro’ ruin’d cloisters hast thou come,
 And howl’d along the haunted gloom;
 And pass’d the pale nun’s spectred form,
 And mix’d her murmurs with thy storm?’

‘ Or does that hollow blast bemoan,
 The desolation it has done?
 The buried seaman’s lot deplore,
 The widow weeping on the shore;
 The fate of many a hero bold,
 And many a gallant crew laid cold?
 Or did it lend the fatal gale
 That swell’d the Victory’s conquering sail?
 Or softly was it hovering nigh,
 To steal the hero’s dying sigh,
 Ere lost amidst the battle’s roar,
 To waft it to its native shore?’

‘ Ah! gentler let it now complain,
 It waves the reeds o’er Nelson slain!’

Art. 31. *The Daisy*; or cautionary Verses adapted to the Ideas of Children from four to eight Years old. Illustrated with thirty Engravings on Copper-plate. 12mo. 1s. Harris. 1807.

This little work answers its design; the poetry is easy; and the subjects are such as are well calculated to produce and nourish good sentiments.

Art. 32. *Old Friends in a new Dress*: or familiar Fables in Verse, adorned with Cuts. 12mo. 6d. Darton. 1807.

Those of Esop’s Fables are here turned into verse of which the morals are most easily comprehended by children; and the author

‘ The ship in which Lord Nelson was killed.’

has ingeniously contrived to interweave the application with the subject. The selection is judicious, and the style is simple and appropriate.

Art. 33. *The Fifth of November*; a Drama, in Three Acts. Written for Schools. By Edmund Philip Bridel, LL. D., Master of the Academy, Islington. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Richardson.

The object of this little piece is to adapt School Theatricals to the capacities of youth, by the introduction of characters suited to their conceptions, and at the same time by exciting virtues attainable at their age, without *launching into Heroics*. For this purpose, a very simple play, on the subject of carrying about a Guy Fawkes, in which boys are the *dramatis persone*, is constructed; and the moral resulting from the whole is that 'virtue is above the reach of no age or rank in life, when the heart is good.' Here children display more amiableness than is often found in grown men.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 34. *An Account of the Navigation and Commerce of the Black Sea*. Collected from Original Sources. By Charles Wilkinson. 8vo. pp. 114. 2s. 6d. Collins. 1807.

Mr. W.'s pamphlet is intended as a manual for the trader to the South of Russia, and descends into minute particulars concerning adventures to those shores. Directions are given respecting the sort of cargo which should be taken out, how to proceed on the voyage, and where to seek for markets. The whole is compiled chiefly from a French work published in 1805, and from Storch's Picture of Russia.

Before we had accepted the challenge of our enemy to join in a commercial war, we should have said that, in a country such as ours, tracts like the present were of the utmost utility: but, if actual circumstances prevent it from being of practical benefit, it will still gratify the curious. With regard to Cherson, the author states that it may be made the mart of the whole commerce of Poland; and he says that the articles proper to import to it are 'wines, fine cloths, West-India coffee, refined sugars, olive oil, dried fruits, various articles of silk, salted provisions, fashionable articles of perfumery and household furniture, sweetmeats, liquors, spices, drugs for dying, such as indigo, gall nuts, and the like.'

'The produce of Poland may be conveyed to the ports on the Black Sea, by the way of Akkermen on the Niester, to Otschakov by the Bog, and to Cherson by the Nieper. Waving the manifest advantages of this triple interior navigation, it is much more easy and economical to convey them to the Black Sea by land, than to transport them to the Vistula, and there embark them for the Baltic.'

'The French, in particular, seem sanguine in their expectations from this new route of commerce, not only as to objects of general speculation, but especially in what relates to their marine. Articles for their navy, which hitherto they could only procure from the ports of Riga and Petersburg, they can now import, at much less expence and risk, through the medium of the Black Sea.'

Even

Even in time of peace this must be a great advantage, but still more so during war ; as, by means of the canal of Languedoc, the articles in question may be safely conveyed for the supply of Brest.

‘ The French seem also to expect, through this new channel, supplies of salted beef, equal to that of Ireland, and procured at a much cheaper rate ; at the same time that they hope to become, more or less, our rivals in the trade of Russia.’

He farther adds that ‘the facility of procuring masts and ship-timber in general, through this channel, is considered by the French as an object of first-rate consequence to their navy and mercantile concerns. The masts were sent to Toulon, and pronounced equal to those usually procured from Riga, though greatly inferior in price, owing to the economy of passing them through the Black Sea.’

The author gives the following account of a place which is much noticed by all the writers who have lately treated of those countries :*

‘ Odessa is well situated for the commerce of Bessarabia, as for that of the palatinates of Braslaw, Podolia, Volhinia, and other provinces acquired by the Russians in the two partitions of Poland. The Emperor Alexander has adopted several measures for the speedy increase of the trade of this place ; in particular, by granting the free transit of all foreign articles imported by sea, or arriving from other towns of Russia. He has also established an *entrepot*, where all unprohibited articles of importation may remain in magazines without paying the duties of entrance, &c. till the time of sale. This favour is the more important, as those duties, in Russia, are high ; so that merchants are often obliged to consign part of their capitals for their discharge.

‘ An exchange has been built for the use of merchants. Contested points are settled by a court of arbitration. All agreements are made on stamped paper, which, besides the stamp-duty, pay one per cent. *ad valorem*. The postage of letters is under good regulations ; the conveyance is by Brodi, a town of Austrian Galicia. England, Austria, Spain, the King of Naples, with the Republic of Ragusa, and of the Seven Isles, have Consuls at Odessa. The population amounts to nine or ten thousand.

‘ Much imported merchandize is disposed of here, for the use of Poland. The entrance of foreign brandy is strictly prohibited. That of rum is allowed, on paying a considerable duty.

‘ The corn of Poland is the principal article of commerce, of which there are two sorts, the hard and the soft. The latter is apt to spoil during long passages. The exportations of hemp, tallow, &c. are less considerable. The deliveries of corn are made between the months of May and August. From five hundred to a thousand waggon-loads at times arrive in the course of a day, when it becomes difficult to water the oxen, as the wells of the town hardly afford a sufficient supply for the inhabitants.

* Our readers may compare this extract with a former statement, quoted from a larger work by Mr. Oddy, in our Number for August 1806. (Vol. I.) p. 343.

‘Firing and provisions are in general dear. House-rent also is very expensive, the buildings not being proportionate to the number of inhabitants, and of strangers resorting thither.’

By these passages, the reader will be enabled to form some judgment with respect to the information which he may procure from this tract.

Art. 35. *An admonitory Epistle to the Rev. Rowland Hill, A. M.* occasioned by the Republication of his “*Spiritual Characteristics, or most curious Sale of Curates,*” by Phileleutheros. 8vo. 1s. Conder.

Rough admonition is very rarely attributed, especially by the object of it, to a friendly motive; though in the present instance Mr. Hill, who appears to have dispensed his kindness in the same ungracious way, must not call the good intention in question. Phileleutheros, with professions of regard, charges the revered satirist with having sullied his pages by the use of such scurrilous, profane, and vulgar language as is beyond all precedent in the religious world. He accuses him also of a great want of charity; and of inconsistency of character, by calling himself a churchman and yet acting as a dissenter. In fine, he invites the reverend gentleman to serious self-examination, by telling him that he mistakes ‘eccentricity and disorder, bitterness and pride, for evidences of superior sanctity and heavenly zeal.’ Such are the “faithful wounds” which are here inflicted; and if the divine cannot prevail on himself to kiss the hand from which they proceed, he will, it is hoped, have the good sense to be cautious, in future, of giving occasion for a repetition of them.

Art. 36. *An Essay on the Character of Ulysses*, delineated by Homer: originally read at the Literary Society at Exeter. By the late Richard Hole, LL.B. Crown 8vo. pp. 144. 3s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1807.

Mr. Hole’s design in this essay was to shew that Homer, in delineating the character of Ulysses, intended to produce ‘a model of piety and patience, of exemplary affection to his family, friends, and Country,—of consummate valour, conduct, fortitude, and wisdom; not perfectly faultless, but that of an elevated human character, fit for admiration and imitation.’ The author, however, says that the good qualities exhibited must not be appreciated according to our apprehension of right and wrong, enlightened as we are by divine revelation, but according to those principles which may reasonably be concluded to have prevailed in Homer’s days. The Essay was found among the posthumous papers of Mr. Hole, and was regarded by his friends as possessing that value which rendered it deserving of publication. In discussing the merits of the character, though the subject is treated in rather too desultory a manner, great ability is no doubt shewn; and the admirers of Homer’s excellencies will derive considerable pleasure from a perusal of the tract. It displays a variety of erudition, and reflects credit on the society by whom it was originally received, as well as on the author, who was a member of that body.

Art. 37. *Thoughts on the Marriages of the Labouring Poor*; containing Instructions for their Conduct before and after their entering into that important State; with four authentic and moral Stories illustrating the Subject. By Thomas Kelly. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Kearsley. 1807.

The subject of this little treatise is of national importance, and we are happy in seeing it taken up by one who seems able to do it justice. Mr. Kelly says that he ranks in that class for whose benefit the work is particularly written: but we should have some doubts on this head, arising from the correct style and occasional elevation of language which it manifests: if, notwithstanding, he be really what he asserts, he is certainly worthy of moving in a higher sphere. The miseries of the labouring married men are here assigned to 1. A want of due preparation for the important state which they are desirous of entering; 2. The neglect of choosing a proper partner for life; 3. Want of economy after marriage; 4. Neglect of their children's education; 5. The custom of suffering their families to be idle; 6. The pernicious habit of drinking.—The principal causes of the failure of a young woman's expectations of matrimonial happiness are assigned to, 1. The neglect of seriously considering, and duly preparing themselves for that state; 2. Want of caution in choosing a husband; 3. Inattention to the arduous duties of the wife and mother. On all of these particulars, very valuable advice is given; and four tales are introduced to shew the advantages and disadvantages attending married persons, according as they observe their respective duties. We freely state it as our opinion that this tract has great merit, and we warmly recommend it to gentlemen for introduction among their domestics, or poor neighbours. Were it somewhat condensed, and made still cheaper, much benefit might accrue to the public from a judicious distribution of it by clergymen among their parishioners.

Art. 38. *Essays on moral and religious Subjects*; calculated to increase the Love of God, and the Growth of Virtue in the youthful Mind. By M. Pelham. 12mo. pp. 154. 3s. Boards. Harris. 1807.

It is the object of these essays to treat of 'moral and religious subjects without damping the cheerfulness of youth, or casting a gloom over innocent vivacity.' Respecting their value, and the importance of the subjects, we are ready to speak in favourable terms: but we are fearful that their unvaried serious turn will make them unpalatable to most young persons. It is certainly very desirable that youth should be always obedient, submissive to Providence, patient, docile, pious, good tempered, and innocently cheerful; and whoever contributes to their attaining these good qualities is a benefactor to his country: yet a person may miss his mark through an excess of zeal, and may fail of doing that good which, if he had been less anxious, he might have been the means of accomplishing.

We must add, however, that, while the author discovers the best intentions, the language is correct, and the sentiments are well illustrated: we doubt not, therefore, that the work will be approved in those religious families in which it may be introduced.

Art.

Art. 39. *The Student's Companion*; or a Summary of general Knowledge, comprehending Geography, Natural History, Astronomy, Chronology, History, Biography, Commerce, Belles Lettres, History of Literature, Theology, and Politics. Illustrated by Engravings. By John Sabine. 12mo. pp. 382. 6s. Boards. Egerton. 1807.

Mr. Sabine has compressed into this volume a great mass of information, and has formed an useful introduction to the subjects on which it professes to treat. The accounts, though concise, are perspicuous and comprehensive; and the knowledge conveyed on several articles is such as cannot otherwise be obtained, without consulting a variety of works. We think that the public is under obligations to the author for the pains which he has taken in smoothing the way to useful knowledge, and in adding to the many valuable summaries already compiled for the benefit of youth.

Art. 40. *A Speech on the Utility of the Learned Languages*, delivered at the Great Room, No. 22, Piccadilly, on the 9th of April 1807, when the following Question was discussed: "Is the Assertion true, that the Learned Languages, as a Part of general Education, are worse than useless?" To which is added a *humourous Speech* on the Question relating to the Mad Dogs. By Samuel Fleming, A. M. late Tutor to the Young Roscius. 8vo. 1s. Bent.

In the monuments of antient literature, we find that *proprietas splendore verborum*, that *copia figurarum*, and that *vis explicandi*, which have been of essential benefit in assisting the judgment and forming the taste of all who have carefully studied them. Now, of what materials is our language composed? to whom have our elegant writers been most indebted? on what models have our best historians, orators, and poets been formed? among whom did the arts flourish with unrivalled glory; and whose footsteps have we been obliged to follow in their revival? in what tongue are the originals of our Scriptures to be found; and what studies are requisite to a critical knowledge of them? When these questions are answered, we may leave it to the common sense of every reader to decide, whether the study of the learned languages be "worse than useless," even as a part of general education.

Mr. Fleming has not sufficiently exposed the absurdity of the assertion which he combats: but his oration, as a popular address, is lively, and was meant to be witty. His *humorous speech* on Mad Dogs we should have been sorry to have been under the necessity of hearing, though our sad destinies have compelled us to read it.

Art. 41. *The Odes of Anacreon of Teos*, literally translated into English Prose. With Notes. By the Rev. Thomas Gilpin, A. B. 2d Edition. 12mo. pp. 191. 7s. 6d. Boards. Mawman, &c.

It is stated in the preface that 'this work is chiefly designed for the use of those who have made no great progress in Greek literature; and that it may the more effectually answer the end proposed, the translation is as literal, as the different idioms of the Greek and Latin languages will allow.'—Mr. Gilpin has omitted

to prove that the works of Anacreon are proper for young beginners; and he has not mentioned in what manner a literal translation is likely to assist the learner of any language. Our opinion is that such a translation is more calculated to obstruct than to promote his improvement. By superseding the necessity of frequent resort to the lexicon and the grammar, it will betray the learner into negligence and idleness; while it renders him inattentive to the construction of sentences, and indifferent to the expressive delicacy and discriminating variety of the Greek tongue. The particular work before us may produce still more lamentable effects; for the young man, who, after having been told that Anacreon is one of the most admired of the ancient poets, shall consider such a translation as this a fair specimen of his powers, will certainly begin and end his classical studies with the prosaic labors of Mr. Gilpin. We mean not to express any regret, however, that Mr. G. did not attempt a poetical version of the Teian strains; since the following distich, from the celebrated epigram on the statue of Niobe, convinces us that, if a translation of Anacreon was destined to come from *his* hands, it is much better in prose than in rhyme:

“From life to stone, from stone to life, transform’d, I stand,
By Jove’s supreme decree,—by *Praxitéles*’ hand.”

We are told also, at p. viii., that ‘no pains have been spared to render this work a *correct* and *useful* edition of Anacreon.’ Of its *usefulness*, we have already ventured to suggest a doubt; on its *correctness*, perhaps the gross mistake abovementioned will prevent even our most juvenile readers from placing much reliance. Thirteen errata are corrected, as if the book contained no more;—a proof of some dexterity at least. They are not indeed confined to the spelling or the accentuation. ‘Αφῆκεν εἰς βίλεμον (p. 22.) is not “shot himself at me instead of a dart,” but—*shot himself into a dart*.—Μάχης ἔσα μ’ ἔχοντες is simply *the battle having hold of me within*; and the learner would be equally misled by ‘the battle *rages* within me,’ which are the words of the text (p. 32), and by the translation in the note (p. 148) which is said to be *verbatim*, ‘the battle having *itself* within me, *i. e.* exerting its force, spending its rage, within me.’

One of the sweetest of the delicious poems of Anacreon is that from which Shakspeare, had he been master of the Greek language, would have been accused of stealing the tender enthusiastic wish of Romeo,—“O that I were a glove upon that hand,” &c.—“O that I were a mirror (says Anacreon) that you might always view me! a robe, that you might always wear me! water, or a perfume; that I might wash or anoint you! and the ribband on your breast, and the pearl on your neck, and the sandal on your foot, that you might even only tread upon me!” Mr Gilpin *does* this (to use his own phrase) in the following manner:

‘But I would be a mirror, that you might ever view me; I would become a vest, that you might always wear me: I am willing to be water, that I may bathe your person: ointment, O Lady! I would be; then would I perfume you; and the fillet of your bosom,
and

and the pearl on *your* neck. Even a sandal I would be; only that you might tread upon me with *your* feet."

We are sorry to witness here some of that moral *cant* which has lately become so very fashionable, and which never offends so deeply as when it is applied to the works of the ancients. It is really too much to censure the *impurity* and *brutality* of a man, who very naturally declares that he would rather be drunk than dead; an alternative in which we apprehend the severest moralist might acquiesce, without censure on the choice so candidly avowed by the poet.

If our readers still entertain any doubts respecting the qualifications of this translator for giving a faithful picture of the most tender, joyous, and delicate compositions in the world, we must beg leave to refer him to the work itself; and the more he examines it, the more perhaps he will agree with us in thinking that Mr. G. is a worse enemy to his original than even the great destroyer, Time. The motto for *his third edition* we will venture to recommend from Horace:

" *Si quid olim lusit Anacreon,*
DELEVIT"—

A well-engraved portrait of the Teian Bard is prefixed to this volume, which is also handsomely printed.

S I N G L E S E R M O N S.

Art. 42. *The Claims of the Establishment*, preached August 30, 1807, at Croydon, in Surrey, by John Ireland, D. D. Prebendary of Westminster, and Vicar of Croydon. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Dr. Ireland here maintains that the ordering of ecclesiastical affairs does strictly and rightfully belong to the civil authority; that all who refuse to concur with the appointments of this authority subject themselves to an inferiority of civil privileges; and that, as on this ground toleration is rather a boon than a right, the liberality of the Establishment is not less conspicuous than the solidity of her claims to all the honours and emoluments of the State. He also contends that, as the submission of the Catholics to our Government can only be partial, their privileges cannot remain entire.—The reply which may be made to this statement is obvious: but it will not be required of us, in the report of a sermon, to discuss the great doctrine of religious liberty; which Dr. I. carefully keeps out of sight, and which, indeed, on his principles, can have no existence. We must not believe, however, that a sort of logic will be relished in the nineteenth century, which would justify intolerance and persecution to the fullest extent.

Art. 43. *Obstacles to Success in the religious Education of Children*: preached at the Rev. William Wall's Meeting-House, Pavement, Moorfields, at a Monthly Association of Ministers and Churches, Jan. 7, 1808. By Robert Winter. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Maxwell and Wilson.

The preacher accounts for the evil which he laments, from the superficial regard paid to religion in families; from the relaxation of domestic discipline, on the one hand, and from undue severity on the other;

other; from the heart and character not being duly disciplined in instruction; from the unsuitable temper and conduct of heads of families; from the negligent attendance of young persons on religious assemblies; and from the habits and customs of the present age. The last mentioned cause is more powerful than all the rest. To the torrent of fashion and public opinion, individuals and families afford a feeble resistance; and when a nation becomes rich, luxurious, proud, and dissipated, we can neither be surprised at, nor hope to overcome, the obstacles to religious education.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A Constant and old Subscriber objects to the translation of *sensus communis* into plain good sense, in one of the passages which we selected from Mr. Hodgson's Juvenal, in our last Number. He quotes the authority of Gilbert Wakefield, to prove that this phrase means "a common feeling or sympathy with others;" and this interpretation (he adds) is supported by the preceding line, in which not the folly, but the *hauteur* of the Emperor's relation is censured.—We are perfectly aware that *common sympathy* is in general the proper translation of the words: but that they admit the interpretation given to them in the couplet which we quoted is perfectly clear from the expression of Horace,

"*Communi sensu plane caret*;"—

and we think that this *common sense* is the *true sense* of Juvenal, from the context, and from the whole spirit of the preceding lines. The Satirist does not appear to us to reproach the high-born Rubellius, (as Mr. Wakefield did the dignified clergy,) with want of feeling for the sufferings of inferiors, but to remonstrate against the absurdity of his ill-placed vanity, the *folly* of his *hauteur*.

From our correspondent's imperfect allusion to the article, for which he wishes us to supply a reference, we are not able to recollect and to specify it. It must have been at a greater distance of time than he supposes.

We agree with J. in some though not in all of his remarks, but he must excuse us from returning to the subject.

Mr. Baynes's letter is received; and his book, which is now before us, shall be noticed as soon as other affairs permit.

We are sensible of the manly and liberal turn of mind displayed in the letters of *Veritas*; and were not our engagements numerous and imperious, we should cherish his correspondence: but, though his inquiring genius and undaunted mode of investigation are such as Reviewers, who are worthy of the name, must approve, we are forced to relinquish all extra-official discussions. Though, therefore, we shall always be happy to receive his communications, we cannot promise distinctly to reply to them.

* * * The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published with the Number for May, on the 1st of June.



THE
A P P E N D I X
 TO THE
 FIFTY-FIFTH VOLUME
 OF THE
M O N T H L Y R E V I E W
E N L A R G E D.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Discussions du Code Civil dans le Conseil d'Etat, &c.; i. e.* Discussions respecting the Civil Code, in the Council of State; preceded by the corresponding Articles of the Text and the *Projet*; with Notes, principally relating to the Observations and the Jurisprudence of the Courts of Reversal and of Appeal. On the Plan of M. *Regnaud*, (of St. Jean d'Angely) Counsellor of State, &c. &c. By MM. JOUANNEAU and L. C. DE SOLON. 4to. 2 Vols. Paris.

WHATEVER progress was made, during the last century, in various parts of useful or ornamental knowlege, it does not appear that this epoch has reason to boast of any considerable advances in the theory or the practice of Legislation. Russia, Prussia, and Tuscany had their legislating sovereigns: but their codes are little known out of the states for which they were framed; and we do not find that they had the effect of ameliorating either the constitution or the jurisprudence even of those countries. In France, indeed, a noble undertaking had been carried on for a considerable length of time, and was near its completion, when, with many other extensive and salutary projects, it was overturned by the Revolution. We allude to the reduction and reformation of the Customary Laws of its different provinces. From the work of one of our own countrymen, which we are now perusing*, we learn that this

* *Hora Juridica Subseciva*, by C. Butler, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn.
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design was conceived in the reign of Charles the Seventh. Soon after he expelled the English from France, he published an ordonnance, by which he directed all the customs and usages of his kingdom to be committed to writing, to be verified by the practitioners of each place, and to be sanctioned by the great council and parliament; and he ordered that the customs thus sanctioned, and those only, should have the force of law: but such were the obstacles in the way of this measure, that forty-two years elapsed before the customs of any one place were verified. From that time, the measure lingered till the reign of Louis XII.; it was then resumed; and about the year 1609, the reduction of the customs was completed. Those of Paris, Orleans, Normandy, and some others, were soon afterward reformed: those of Artois and St. Omers underwent this revision about the middle of the last century; and the reformation of the others was nearly finished.—The ultimate object of the plan was to abolish all local customs; and, from the general body of the customary law, and the doctrines of the civil law, to establish an uniformity of jurisprudence throughout the kingdom. It was a favourite object of the Chancellor *d'Aguesseau*; and he had digested it into a regular plan.

In the reign of Louis XIV., much was done for the improvement of the national jurisprudence of France: the French lawyers speak in the highest terms of several of his ordonnances; and we are assured by them that they contain the wisest and most salutary regulations, methodically and clearly expressed. Certain it is that, in every maritime state of Europe, his *Ordonnance sur la Marine* is read and admired.—During the reign of Louis XV., little was accomplished in the prosecution of this object: but, in the early days of the French Revolution, its admirers foretold the wonderful improvements which it would effect in government and law. Other constitutions, it was said, had been fortuitously framed; their parts had been composed to meet present emergencies, and constituted no systematic whole; they contained many discordant principles, many jarring forms, much unmixed evil, some imperfect good, many institutions which had long survived their motive, and many of which reason had never been the author nor utility the object. The legislators of the Revolution were to produce a very different code. They were to tolerate nothing of antiquity which reason did not respect; to shrink from no novelty to which reason might lead; to despise narrow coastings, and to hazard, under the polarity of reason, a bolder navigation; to discover, in unexplored regions, the treasure of public felicity; and to diffuse it, in their legislative enactments, through every

every portion of the Gallic empire.—Such were the splendid prophecies of the effects of the new jurisprudence ; and it is unnecessary to add how little the event corresponded with the prediction.

The fate of the first legislators of the Revolution did not deprive them of a tribe of imitators ; and the work before us shews that, in the midst of his victories, *Bonaparte* aspires to legislative fame. We hope that he will deserve it : for we acknowledge our wish that, under his auspices, France may excel in all the peaceful arts ; and particularly that his subjects may enjoy every kind of happiness which a permanent system of wise and well administered legislation can confer. Such a wish is not unpatriotic, nor unprovident, nor even *generous* : for it is impossible that France should be wise or happy, and her neighbours not be the better for her wisdom and her happiness.

The *Code Napoleon* has just reached us ; and we find in it an account of the discussions which took place among the persons principally consulted in its formation. *Bonaparte*, as First Consul, takes his share in their deliberations : he is frequently out-voted ; and the report does not afford the least ground for supposing that the freedom of debate was checked, in the slightest degree, by consular authority. Pliny frequently compliments Trajan on the liberty of speech which the senate enjoyed in his presence ; and though between Trajan and *Bonaparte* we can trace little resemblance, yet, from the records of those days and from the volumes before us, it is evident that Pliny never spoke nor affected to speak with more freedom before Trajan, than *Tronchet* appears to have debated before *Bonaparte*.

In an early page of the work, a deliberation of some length takes place on the article of the code which “forbids Judges to pronounce generally, and by way of regulation, on the causes which come before them.” A discussion was thus induced on the nature of that important and extensive portion of the law of every civilized state, which arises from the opinions delivered by courts of justice and the consequences deducible from them. The members of the council appear to have taken a distinction between legislative and doctrinal interpretation ; and they charge the Judges of the old *regime* with having assumed a right to the former, by extending the operation of the law by their own regulations under the name of *arrêts* : but they seem to feel the necessity of allowing to Judges a considerable degree of latitude for the doctrinal interpretation of the law. In the course of the discussion, M. *Rœderer* asks, if the *Code civil* had been wholly silent on the right of aliens to inherit property, to whom it should belong ?

M. *Tronchet* replies that, by analogy to the general principles of the code, which exclude a stranger from civil rights, the Judge should have pronounced him incapable of taking property by descent; and this opinion seems to be generally adopted by the council.—We conceive that M. *Ræderer* was not very happy in his question: for the moment it is admitted that the law excludes strangers from all civil rights, and that the taking of lands by descent is a civil right, the question is answered.—On the whole, considering the importance of the subject, we must express our surprize at the jejune and unsatisfactory manner in which it appears to have been treated.

We are as little edified with the discussion on the effects of Civil Death. We find it inseparable from capital punishment: but several offences, which are not capital, are punished by civil death; and it then becomes a question with the members of the council, what is to be the fate of the wife and her subsequent children by the husband? is the marriage to subsist? are the children to be legitimate?—Some of the members contend that, marriage being a civil contract, and civil death being a dissolution of all civil contracts, it must operate to dissolve the marriage, and bastardize the future offspring. Here the *humanity of the First Consul* is eloquent. ‘Society,’ he cries, ‘is sufficiently revenged in the loss sustained by the criminal of all his property and all his other rights. Must the wife also suffer? must she be violently torn away from an union which has identified her existence with that of her husband? The wife would say, “if you had terminated my husband’s existence, you would have permitted me to cherish his memory; you suffer him to live, then permit me to comfort him.”—For acting up to these sentiments you would esteem her virtue; then legalize the attachment which you admire.’—The harsher sentiment, however, prevails over that of the First Consul, and the article stands in these words: “The previous marriage of a person civilly dead is dissolved in respect to all civil effects, and his wife and his heirs are intitled to the same rights and actions as if he were actually dead.

On all points which relate to marriage, we find that the state is every thing, and the church nothing. After two publications of the marriage at a distance of eight days by a public officer, before the door of the *maison commune*, with several other civil formalities, the parties are again to present themselves to the civil officer, and, in the presence of four witnesses, declare to him their agreement to become husband and wife; then, in the name of the law, he is to pronounce that they are married, to draw up a legal act of the marriage, and to deposit that act in the public office.—M. *Tronchet* proposes that

that the public officers should read to the couple, the chapter of the code on the duties of husband and wife. The First Consul declares his warm approbation of the motion, 'because the proposed lecture will leave on the minds of the married couple, recollections which will lead them to inquire of the Law what should be their conduct when circumstances of difficulty afterward occur.' The Consul *Cambacérès* observes that the chapter in question mentions nothing of the duties of obedience and fidelity which marriage imposes on the woman: but the First Consul, who is never at a loss on great occasions, immediately proposes that the 'civil officer himself should explain them to her.'—It must be owned that the gipsy jargon, as Mr. Burke has somewhere termed it, of these modern Solons, does not give us an exalted notion of either their wisdom or their philosophy.

It appears that the subject of Divorce was much discussed in the council; and finally it was admitted. The husband may claim a divorce for the adultery of his wife: but the wife can only claim it for the adultery of her husband if he has kept a concubine in their house. Either husband or wife is intitled to a divorce if the other has been condemned to an infamous punishment; and mutual and uniform consent to a divorce, expressed in the manner and accompanied by the conditions and trials prescribed by the law, is held to afford sufficient proof that the tempers of the parties are incompatible, and that a peremptory cause of separation exists.—We must presume that our readers are acquainted with Mr. Hume's essay on this curious and interesting topic; which certainly will not suffer in comparison with any thing contained in the book before us.

The Legitimation of Children born before marriage, by the subsequent union of their parents, is a subject which naturally attracts an Englishman's attention; since the memorable refusal of the Barons to admit it, when it was pressed on them by the ecclesiastical part of the council of Merton, is always mentioned as a glorious triumph of our ancestors over foreign innovations. The *Code Napoleon* provides that children born before matrimony may be legitimated by the subsequent marriage of their parents, if both parents acknowledge them before the ceremony or in the act of its celebration. It operates in respect to the descendants of such children, if the children die before the marriage; and it confers on the issue, thus legitimated, all the rights to which they would have been intitled if they had been born after the union.

Our attention was next caught by some pages in which a considerable discussion occurs respecting the law of Adoption.

We find traces of this practice in the Jewish and Grecian law, and a few faint vestiges of it in the early histories and codes of some of the German nations: but it never made a part of English law. In Roman jurisprudence, it formed an extensive and important article. It seems to have originated in the wish, so common to man at the close of life, of transmitting his property to a person of his own choice, and in some measure continuing his own existence. Among the Romans, it was sometimes practised for very fraudulent purposes, two of which are particularly mentioned by the writers on the civil law; 1st, By the antient law of Rome, the father of three children had many valuable privileges; and in order to obtain them, a Roman citizen, to whom nature refused children, acquired them by adoption: the law recognized the filiation; and the rights of parentage necessarily followed. 2dly, It sometimes happened that the patricians wished to fill offices which were open only to plebeians; and to obtain a qualification for them, they procured themselves to be adopted into a plebeian family; which act engrafted them on that family, and conferred on them its sacred and civil rights. This was one of Clodius's manœuvres in his attack on Cicero, —Such motives made the practice frequent among the Romans, but it was viewed with much jealousy: it was conceived that the public was so much interested in the adoption, that the measure was allowed to take place only at the *comitia curiata*; and as the adopted child was intitled to a participation of the sacred rights of the family into which he was received, it became a part of the pontifical law. After the ceremony of filiation was completed, the child was invested with all the rights and obligations of the natural and legitimate offspring of the parent by whom he was adopted: but these privileges were moderated by Justinian, who excluded the adopted child from all the obligations of a natural and legitimate child, and from all his rights, except that of succession in cases in which the parent died intestate.

From this short view of the history and law of Adoption, it does not appear to be a practice grounded either on the general feelings of human nature, or on any rational rules of artificial society; and as it was wholly unknown to the old French law, it is not altogether improbable that, if the Chief Consul had not entertained particular views of his own, it never would have made an article in the *Code Napoleon*. The discussion of it, however, in the volumes before us, is interesting. M. *Tronchet* observes that he has always been adverse to adoption, and assigns the reasons which determined his opinion:

‘ At first view, (says he,) Adoption flatters the imagination and the feelings: but, in fact, it is merely a fraud on those restraints which the law of France imposes on an unlimited power of the alienation of property; and it is therefore a real anomaly, and a deviation without reason from legal principles. It is an institution neither necessary nor useful; and it has no other effect than that of flattering the vanity of those who wish to perpetuate their name. The advantage supposed to result from it is the consolation which it seems to hold out to those who are not blessed with children, by affording them a semblance of paternity: but it never can be more than a faint and imperfect imitation of nature; and it must always be open to this objection, that it destroys the reciprocity of affection, on which the union was founded, by converting independence into duty.’

He then enumerates the evils resulting from adoption to individuals, and to society at large: observing that

‘ Persons united by adoption will too frequently experience mutual disappointment. The father will more often resort to it from hatred to his heirs, than from good will to the adopted; and thus he will prepare for himself a source of regret the more poignant, because it will be irremediable. Suppose a married couple to have no offspring, and to adopt a child that pleases them: one of the couple dies; the other marries again, and has a child; it is easily conceived how great will be the regret of the parent for having given a stranger-brother to his real offspring. The father will hate his adopted child, the adopted child will hate his brother, contention will arise, and the peace and harmony of the family will be wholly destroyed. Besides, if a person desire to do good to any child, it is not necessary for this purpose that he should adopt him; the law leaves enough of his property in his power, to enable him to effect all the good that he can reasonably wish to confer; and if he should wish to do more, it must be because he is instigated by the vanity of perpetuating his name, and of leaving to him who is to bear it a fortune that will enable the holder of it to represent him with *éclat*. Such vanity can be tolerated only in the most aristocratic states.—The lot of the adopted child will be equally insecure. If the adoption be irrevocable, the child will find himself bound by an engagement which he has not contracted, and to which perhaps he is repugnant; and if it be revocable, so that he can shake off the yoke when he comes of age, he must of necessity return to his original family. What will he then find in it, but want and wretchedness? for surely it is not intended that his return should have any retro-active effect on the division of fortune and other family arrangements, which shall have intermediately taken place.—With regard to the public, also, adoption must be attended with equal inconvenience. Should the affiliated child have no claims of right on the patrimony of the person who has adopted him, he becomes a kind of equivocal being, a monster in society; he is cut off from his natural family-connections, yet belongs not to the family into which he is adopted. Should he be admitted to all the rights of real children, then the legislator is unjust to the relations of the adopter, as he deprives his natural and real offspring of their legal rights: but, by the law of

France, it is not in the power of an individual to take from any citizen his right of succession.'

In reply, the First Consul says ;

'The custom of adoption is so far from being of aristocratic origin, that it has principally prevailed in republics ; and the modifications, with which it is now intended to be sanctioned, harmonize with the order of things long since established in France. With those modifications, it will be a mere transmission of names and patrimony ; a species of transmission long in use, and which has never been accused of making the adopted child a monster in the social order of beings. It has been remarked that adoption serves no other purpose than that of gratifying vanity : but it confers more substantial advantages ; it procures for old age a greater certainty of support and comfort than that which might be expected from collateral relatives ; and it enables the merchant or the manufacturer, who is deprived of children, to create for himself an assistant and a successor. The power of disposing of his property does not, during the life of the testator, form any ties between him and the proposed object of his bounty. Motives more dignified than vanity may influence his conduct ; affection, esteem, and sentiment, may lead him to the desire of contracting this alliance with a person whom he may consider as worthy of the favour. It effects no change in our morals ; while it encourages youth, prepares good citizens for the state, and furnishes supplies for all professions. Much has been said on the probable regrets of the adopting parent : but regret is a possible consequence of all human transactions ; we repent of sales, gifts, and marriages ; yet sales, gifts, and marriages are among the ordinary occurrences of life, and are sanctioned and encouraged by law.—After all, if the parent should feel himself disappointed in the consequences which he expected from the adoption, he may confine the child to that portion of his property which the law assigns to him.—The only remaining argument against adoption is the injury done by it to collateral relatives : but this is not to be taken into account, because the interest of collaterals is of little moment in the eye of the law.'

From these discourses, (which we have considerably abridged), the reader will perceive the nature of the arguments used on each side of the question. The opinion of the Chief Consul prevails ; and Adoption is received into the code, but under numerous regulations. The adopting parent must be of the age of 50, and be older by at least 15 years than the person whom he adopts. No child, nor any more remote issue of the adopter, must be alive at the time of the adoption ; neither can the husband adopt without the consent of the wife, nor the wife without that of the husband ; and, except where they both join in the adoption, no individual can be adopted by more than one person. The adopted must have been a continued object of the adopter's bounty and care for six years immediately

immediately preceding the adoption; unless the person adopted has saved his adopter's life, or has rescued him from imminent peril by water or fire. Adoption is not to take place during the adopter's minority; nor between that time and his attaining the age of 25 years, without the consent of both his parents, if both of them be alive, or that of the survivor, if either of them be dead. The adopted person is to remain in his own family: his family-rights and obligations are preserved to him; marriage between him and his adopting parents and their issue is forbidden; he acquires by adoption no right of succession to the property of the adopter's relatives: but, in respect to that of the adopter himself, he obtains, though the adopter should have afterward other children, all the rights of a child.

A tribunal of adoption is established; the members of which are required to decide whether all the conditions of the law in respect to this measure have been fulfilled, and whether the person proposed to be adopted has a good character. They must then pronounce whether there be or be not ground for the adoption. After a month's delay, their sentence is to be referred to the Tribunal of Appeal; and, if it be confirmed, it is to be inscribed in the public register of the place at which the adopted is domiciliated. The adoption is then complete.

Such is the actual law of Adoption in France;—and we join M. *Tronchet* in thinking that it is an anomalous and absurd provision. The restraints imposed on it are very numerous, and must make the instances of it rare. If it had formed a part of the old law, and the use of it had been frequent, we should have regarded the provision respecting it, in the *Code Napoleon*, as a legislative sacrifice to public opinion: but, as it was unknown in the antient law, we see no good reason for its introduction into the present code. Perhaps, however, as we have before intimated, something more was meant by it than was then intended to meet the public ear; and the provision was inserted in the code with the view of reconciling the nation to the adoptions which have since taken place in the Imperial family.

On the interesting subject of Imprisonment for Debt, (which as we are happy to observe, now begins to attract in a great degree the general attention of our countrymen,) we were rather sorry but not surprized to find no discussion. Creditors are always bound to accept the *cessio bonorum*, under the provision of the law; and the debtor is thus freed from liability to personal arrest, though he is not discharged from the debt.

The work contains very copious and interesting debates on the propriety of giving children a legal right to any portion of the property of their parents;—on the effects of voluntary gifts

gifts in respect to creditors or purchasers;—on the recision of sales for inadequacy of price;—on the public registration of mortgages;—and on several other subjects which come home to an English lawyer:—but we have not time at present to furnish our readers with extracts from them.

This publication certainly abounds with curious matter, and must interest, in a high degree, all persons who are engaged in any speculations for the amelioration of national jurisprudence. That much in *our* jurisprudence requires emendation seems to be generally acknowledged: that this emendation is an arduous undertaking, and that the rash and the unskilled should be kept from it, are equally true: but that something should be done towards it by the prudent and the wise is desired by all to whom the delay, the expence, and the uncertainty of our present system of law are known.—Whenever it is seriously undertaken, it will certainly behove us to avail ourselves of the example and the experience of our neighbours.

We have seen on sale, but we have not been able to procure it, *l'Esprit du Code Napoleon*, a work in several volumes, highly commended in the *Moniteur*.

[To be continued.]

ART. II. *Géographie Physique de la Mer Noire, &c.; i. e. The Physical Geography of the Black Sea, of the Interior of Africa, and of the Mediterranean*; by A. DUREAU-DE-LAMALLE, jun. Accompanied by two Charts prepared by J. N. Buache, Member of the Institute of France and of the Board of Longitude, one of them representing the Changes that have taken place in the inland Seas; the other, the interior Parts of Africa, and the Routes pursued by the victorious Greeks and Romans, on their Expeditions. 8vo. pp. 400. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s.

THIS work derives interest not only from the researches which it contains, and from the comparisons which it draws, but also from the near coincidence which it establishes between all the opinions of antient historians and poets, on facts very imperfectly known and very badly interpreted. The labours of the author are moreover rendered valuable by furnishing proofs and fixing the epoch of the great changes, which the inland seas have undergone either by volcanoes or earthquakes, or by the accumulations of mud and sand formed near their mouth by the rivers that empty their waters into them. He seems to consider it as necessary only to view, on a geographical chart, the form of the Euxine or Black sea, the bearings of its coasts, and the figure of the canal of the Bosphorus, in
order

order to believe that the communication between that sea and the Mediterranean did not originally exist, and that the globe has undergone a remarkable change in that place. He adduces many authorities to shew that the irruption of the Euxine, or the opening of this communication, may, by introducing chronology in support of history, be traced to a period not long antecedent to historic times; and that this great physical event occasioned wonderful changes on the coasts and boundaries of the Caspian sea, of the sea of Azof, of the Black sea, and of the Mediterranean: which he conceives to have been originally a lake, and not a sea separated from the Atlantic by a sort of isthmus or low neck of land, extending from Europe to Africa, till it was broken through by the ocean with the co-operation of some physical causes, and the passage was gradually washed and progressively formed into what are now called the Straits of Gibraltar.

M. DE LAMALLE gives a cursory view of the state of geographical knowledge in antient times, and in succeeding ages, down to the period at which Pliny, Arrian, and Ptolemy flourished. In the first place, he mentions the geography of Homer, and in support of its accuracy produces the respectable authorities of Polybius and Strabo. He then adverts briefly to that of Anaximander and Thales; after which he proceeds to the geography of Strabo and of Herodotus: the latter of whom, to the advantage of an extensive erudition, joined that of having actually seen the countries which he describes most in detail, namely Egypt, Scythia, Thrace, Persia, Assyria, Lydia, Syria, Palestine, &c. In following the geographical narratives of that faithful and correct historian, M. DE L. makes him express himself in the following words:

‘ I know the country occupied by the Persians, which extends even to the Erythrean sea. Above them, towards the north, live the Medes and the Sapires. Beyond the Sapires are the Colchidians, who border on the sea into which the Phasis empties itself. These four nations reach from one sea to the other. In going thence towards the west, are found two opposite peninsulæ, which border on the sea. The one on the north commences at Phasis, and extends towards the sea along the Euxine, quite to the promontory of Sigeum, in the Troad. On the south, this peninsula begins at the Myriandric gulph adjacent to Phœnicia, and reaches to the promontory of Triopeum. It is inhabited by thirty different nations.—The other peninsula begins on the confines of Persia, and extends to the Erythrean sea; and along this sea it includes first Persia, and then Assyria and Arabia. It borders on the Arabian gulph at the place at which Darius had a canal opened to communicate with the Nile. From Persia to Phœnicia, the country is vast and extensive. From Phœnicia, the same peninsula runs along this
very

very sea by Syria of Palestine, and Egypt, on which it bounds. It comprehends only three nations.

‘ The countries towards the east above the Persians, the Medes, the Sapires, and the Colchidians, are bounded on this side by the Erythrean sea (here the Persian gulph), and on the north by the Caspian sea and the Araxes, which takes its course towards the east.

‘ The greater part of Asia was discovered by Darius. This prince, wishing to know into what part of the sea the Indus threw itself, embarked in vessels men of veracity and confidence, and among others Scylax. They descended the river towards the east and the south; then, navigating towards the west, they arrived at length, on the thirtieth month after they had set out, at the very port at which the Phœnicians had formerly embarked by order of the King of Egypt to navigate round Lybia. After that circumnavigation was finished, Darius subdued the Indians, and made use of this sea. It was thus that it was discovered that Asia, except the oriental part of it, on the whole resembles Lybia.

‘ Lybia immediately succeeds Egypt, and makes part of the second peninsula, which is narrow on the confines of this province. In fact, from the Mediterranean to the Erythrean or Red sea, the distance is only about one thousand stadia: but from this narrow place the peninsula becomes spacious and more expanded, taking the name of Lybia.

‘ Lybia itself shews that it is surrounded by the sea, except on the side on which it borders on Asia. Nechos, king of Egypt, is the first, as far as we know, who proved this fact. When he had finished the excavation of the canal which was designed to convey the waters of the Nile to the Arabian gulph, he made Phœnicians set out in ships, with orders to enter on their return by the pillars of Hercules into the northern sea, and to come back that way to Egypt. The Phœnicians, having embarked on the Red sea, sailed into the southern ocean; and, after a navigation of two years, they doubled the pillars of Hercules, and returned into Egypt. They mentioned, on their arrival, that, in sailing round Lybia, they had observed the sun on their right; and thus for the first time Lybia became known.’

In the tenth chapter, the writer speaks of the courses of the Nile and the Niger, giving Herodotus’s account of the mode of navigating the upper part of the former by means of batteaux; which is very similar to the method now employed for carrying batteaux up the rapids of the river St. Laurence, from Montreal to Lake Ontario. He observes that Mr. Bruce could not be correctly acquainted with its course, because, in returning from Abyssinia, he followed it from Halfaia only to Gous, where he quitted that river in order to set out for Syene by the desert of Nubia.—In the two following chapters, M. DE LAMALLE gives an account of the expeditions of the Ethiopians, of Alexander, of Ptolemy Philadelphus, and Ptolemy Evergetes; and in the thirteenth he produces various authorities, to shew that the Nile and the Niger are but branches of the same

same river. He then takes notice of the expedition of the consul Suetonius Paulinus, of the sources of information which Pliny received from the Carthaginians respecting the interior parts of Africa, and of the expedition of Cornelius Balbus.

One great object of the author is to make it appear that the antients were much better acquainted with the interior parts of Africa than modern geographers are, who have not even availed themselves of the lights thrown on the subject in the writings of the former. After having adverted to the lakes and mountains in this portion of the globe, and treated at some length of the sources of the Nile, he draws the following inferences, which we are inclined to consider as for the most part just and well founded :

1st. That the antients had a much more exact knowlege than we have of the interior of Africa, where their colonies are found beyond the Niger as well as towards the sources of the Nile, and into which they had sent armies westward to the 8th degree of northern latitude, and eastward to the 8th degree of southern latitude.

2d. That almost all the antient names of the people, who submitted in the two great expeditions of Cornelius Balbus and Ptolemy Evergetes, are found in the modern names with great exactness.

3d. That there exists a lake of salt water, or inland sea, which extends very far to the southward of the equator ; and that this lake, known by the Greeks under the name of Kerne, and by us under that of Zambré, has a much greater extent towards the north than it is represented to have in our charts.

4th. That the Grecian, Arabian, and Portuguese travellers agree in placing under the equator the highest mountains of Africa, which they compare to those of Caucasus and Imaus, the most elevated chains in Asia.

5th. That the accounts of the same travellers, antient and modern, combine in fixing under the equator, in the midst of these grand Ethiopian chains of mountains, the true sources of the Nile, which they have lately carried back, or traced to 8° north of the Line.

6th. That the facts collected by the Greeks, the Carthaginians, and the Romans, in their expeditions, and those which have been transmitted to Arabian geographers and to our latest travellers in the interior parts of Africa, establish the certainty of a communication between the Nile and the Niger by means of Bahr-el-Azrak and Misselad, and the lakes Caonga and d'Ouangarah ; presenting, in the rainy seasons, an inland navigation of more than two thousand leagues in length, in the middle of this vast continent.

After having referred to the geography of Eratosthenes, and the sources from which he drew his information, together with the geological geography of Straton and Xanthus, the author gives the opinion of Strabo respecting the irruption of the Euxine or Black sea into the Mediterranean. He then speaks of the antient limits of the inland seas of Azof, the Euxine, and the Caspian. On the first of his two charts, he represents that of Azof, as having, in the time of Herodotus, extended almost to the Caspian; and as having been in the second century of the Christian era at least four times as large as it is now. Every modern map of it certainly exhibits it as greatly short of the extent and limits assigned to it by Polybius.

In this volume we are furnished with a large portion of physical and geological geography; and it proves, beyond contradiction, that the writings of the antients have been but too little searched by modern geographers, for information respecting the interior parts of Africa. The many curious facts and circumstances stated in it, as drawn from these store-houses of antiquity, render the perusal of it not only interesting but entertaining: but, as it is impossible for us to advert to every part of it, we shall content ourselves with laying before our readers the author's own brief conclusion:

‘ After the facts which I have just been establishing, relative to the formation of the Thracian Bosphorus and the Strait of Gibraltar, it seems to me that the antient histories and traditions about partial deluges, and the numerous vestiges of these inundations observed by naturalists on the coasts of our interior seas, may be naturally explained by admitting that the ocean, of which the level was more elevated, in forcing itself into the Mediterranean, (which, separated from the Black sea, was then only a lake of moderate extent, formed by the waters of the Nile, the Rhone, the Po, and several other less considerable rivers,) inundated part of the low and sandy coasts of Spain and Barbary, of the plains of Provence and Languedoc, and of the marshy regions of Egypt and Asia Minor, where it has penetrated even to the base of the hills and mountains.

‘ This will perhaps be considered as one of the deluges anterior to Deucalion.

‘ From this epoch, the Mediterranean, in consequence of the extent of its basin, losing infinitely more by evaporation than it receives by its rivers and the strait of Gibraltar, then very narrow, will have been diminished in its extent; and the currents and materials, washed down by its rivers, will have carried extensive plains forwards into its bosom.

‘ In fine, when by the volcanic eruption of the Cyanæ or Pavnariz isles, (in the canal of Constantinople,) the canal of the Bosphorus and the neighbouring plains had opened a passage to the Euxine united to the Aral, to the Caspian, and to the Palus Meotus,

tus, then almost as extensive as the Mediterranean is in our days,—these low plains, these lands of new formation, were for some time partly covered by the waters: but the equilibrium soon returned in this basin, which could disgorge itself into the strait of Gibraltar; the Mediterranean, augmented by tribute from ten of the largest rivers in the north of Europe, has since that time been less diminished by evaporation; and its coasts have not experienced remarkable changes, except in low sunken places, and in the environs of its great rivers.’

We are sorry that we have not present opportunity for a more detailed analysis of this publication, which will much interest the inquirer into antient geography.

ART. III. *Tableau Historique, &c ; i.e.* An Historical, Statistical, and Moral Picture of Upper Italy, and of the Alps which surround it; to which is prefixed a comparative View of the Characters of the Emperors, Kings, and other Princes who have reigned in Lombardy, from Bellocsesus and Cæsar to Napoleon the First. By CH. DENINA, Librarian to His Imperial and Royal Majesty. 8vo. pp. 412. Paris.—Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s.

ACCORDING to our sublime Bard,

“ They err who count it glorious to subdue
By conquest far and wide, to over-run
Large countries, and in field great battles win,
Great cities by assault :” MILTON, *Paradise Regained*.

but the generality of writers, both in verse and in prose, are so profuse in their adulation of conquerors, that the solitary protest even of the great Milton will not be much regarded. The recent subduer and plunderer of Italy is exalted by M. DENINA above all its antient or modern invaders and masters; and the Cæsars, Justinians, and Charlemagnes, are represented as shining with faint lustre, compared with the star which now rules the ascendant, yclept Napoleon the first. Of those regions which he has appropriated to himself, geographers and statistical writers hasten to furnish descriptions; and are eager by their details to make us acquainted with the demarcations and *arrondissemens* which his sword has drawn. It is probable, also, that policy unites with vanity in recommending the execution of works of this nature; the conqueror being solicitous of ascertaining the value of his acquisitions, and of collecting those facts respecting the population and riches of his Italian dominions; which are necessary for the purposes of internal regulation, taxation, and conscription.

Upon

Upper Italy, the subject of the present work, is described by M. DENINA in 20 sections. including an account of Piedmont, properly so called, forming at present the Department of the Po, and the 27th military division of the French Empire;—of the provinces which constitute the department of the Stura;—of the Maritime Alps;—of the department of Tanaro;—of the provinces and districts which constitute the Department of Marengo;—of the countries on the right bank of the Tesin, including many provinces of the *ci-devant* Piedmont;—of the Departments of the Sesia, and the Doire;—of the eastern and western side of the Alps;—of the Departments of Mont-Blanc and of Lake Lemman;—of Austrian Lombardy;—of the two *ci-devant* Venetian provinces, now called the Departments of the Seiro and the Mella;—of Modena and Ferrara;—of the legations of Bologna and Romagna, now two Departments of the kingdom of Italy;—of the states of Parma;—of Eastern Liguria;—of the countries situated between Liguria and the kingdom of Etruria;—and of the parts of Italy formerly belonging to the House of Austria. Interspersed, will be found reflections on the character of the different people who are amalgamated by the recent revolutions on the continent, and annexed at the command of the conqueror to the overgrown French Empire.

It will be impossible for us even to glance at all the various particulars which are detailed under this statistical survey, or to recount the circumstances descriptive of each department under the heads of history, soil, climate, natural productions, industry, modes of life, character, population, &c: but we shall endeavour to select, from different parts of the work, such specimens as will enable our readers to form some idea of the nature of its execution, and will at the same time convey to them some information and amusement.

The department of the Po, of which Turin is the capital, is stated to contain a population of 420,000.—In the second section, *Coni*, the capital of the department of the Stura, is thus described:

‘ *Coni*, in Italian *Cuneo*, from the Latin word *Cuneus*, is built on a piece of ground in the shape of a wedge, naturally formed by the confluence of the two rivers Gesso and Stura. This new town, which sprang from an antient city called *Pedona*, owes its origin to certain emigrants from Caraglio and other places in its vicinity, who sought to deliver themselves from the tyranny of their lords. As it seemed adapted by its position to be made a fortified place, it became an object of cupidity to the neighbouring princes and republics; at one time to the Marquisses of Saluce, at another to the Counts of Provence, then to the republic of Asti, and afterward to the Counts and Dukes of Savoy, under whose dominion it has continued since 1416.

Erected

Erected into a city, and become the seat of government of four other cities, forty-six towns, and more than forty villages or parishes dependant on them, and containing within itself twenty thousand inhabitants, Coni might reckon in its *arrondissement*, 140,000 souls. Being situated on the only pass from Provence to Piedmont, this is a place of commerce as well as a strong fortification; and it has, at different epochs, successfully sustained six sieges.'

The value of the county of Nice, in the eye of a statistical observer, is estimated in a few lines :

'The air of Nice, and of the country round, is the most healthy and temperate of any in Europe. The soil is fertile, but only in productions which are of secondary necessity, viz. wine, oil, pulse, lemons, and oranges; it is deficient in grain and pasturage, and is forced to draw its provisions, poultry, eggs, and milk from Piedmont, and its corn from Africa, Sardinia, or Sicily. Mulberry-trees are raised for silk worms; and for these the people in many places neglect the culture of the olive, which is more adapted to the country, and more certain in its ultimate produce, though not so promising for the moment. The county of Nice, including the district of Sospello, in 1795 reckoned a population of 61,963 inhabitants, who were lively, active, shrewd, and industrious.'

After having informed us that different vallies of the Alps are celebrated for workmen belonging to various trades and professions, the author adds that, 'Nice and Sospello are famous for sending out schoolmasters, or persons suited to those professions which require (or are supposed to require) some sort of literature, as lawyers, magistrates, counsellors, priests, and monks.'—'Yet,' says he, 'it is a remarkable trait in the Niceans, that they are not a sea-faring people and do not make good sailors; the difference between them and the Genoese, and other inhabitants of Liguria, is very striking in this respect.'

Speaking of the Genoese, M. DENINA quotes Exod. 28. 19. as a presumptive evidence of the very early commerce of this people with the East. He supposes that this intercourse subsisted, if not in the time of Moses, at least before the Pentateuch was translated into Greek, since the LXX call yellow amber *λγυριον*, whence the *ligurius* of the Vulgate and the *ligure* of our English version: but the Hebrew word *לגורי* bears no resemblance to the word *liguria*, so that the original does not support the inference here attempted to be adduced. The passage in Pliny, to which the author refers, (lib. 37. cap. 8.) proves only the great ignorance of this antient writer respecting the natural history of amber, and by no means establishes the fact that it derived its name from the country of Liguria; for, though the naturalist observes in

one part of this chapter, "*Theophrastus in Liguria effodi dixit.*" a few lines afterward he adds, "*Demonstratus lyncurion id vocat, et fieri ex urina lyncum bestiarum.*"

Anecdotes are here recited from classic authors in illustration of the industry, perseverance, commercial enterprize, and cunning of the antient Ligurians; and of the modern Genoese it is observed that

' Economy, in the full extent of the term, seems to constitute the basis of their character. For the words *agio* and *lotto*, many inventions of finance, and a number of Italian mercantile terms, which have remained unchanged in other languages, we are more indebted to Genoa than to all the other cities of Italy.

' The form of their government appears to have been always republican. It is remarkable that, in all the details of the wars of Liguria, during the times of the Romans, the name of not a single Ligurian king, prince, or commander in chief occurs; a strong proof of the equality of condition which prevailed among this people. All the history of the middle ages, as well as that of more recent periods, exhibits the inhabitants of the region formerly known by the name of Liguria as more inclined to independence, to a republican government, and to insurrections, than any of their neighbours.

' Their wars, their commerce, their asperity, and the sterility of the soil which obliged them to incessant labour, prevented them for a long period from cultivating the fine arts, or from devoting themselves to literature. From the time of the Scipios, when the Romans first began to acquire a taste for study, the Ligurians, who had just fallen under their yoke, were treated as an ignorant people. The history also of the 4th, 5th and 6th ages of Roman literature, from Terence to Cassiodorus, presents us with only a single Ligurian, viz. Peto Albinovanus*, to whom Horace addresses one of his Epistles. (Lib. 1. ep. 8.) Besides, this Albinovanus, who can be regarded as little more than an admirer or at most as a servile imitator, came (as some report) from Albinga, a town near Provence. It was moreover from this part of the state of Genoa, rather than from Genoa itself, and on its eastern coast, (*dans la rivière de Levante*) that in the subsequent ages we find authors, artists, and petty princes, who were protectors and admirers of letters and the arts. No doubt, Genoa has been fruitful in men of talents: but the spirit of the government, which naturally retains much of the primitive character of the nation, has not shewn itself favourable to the arts and sciences. The numerous authors who occur in the *Bibliotheca Ligustica* of Oldoin are monks, and the literary establishments of this city owe their origin to the religious orders. Now we very well know that monks, brought up and educated in other countries than those which gave them birth, contract other views and are formed to a different character

* See an account of the poems of Peto, M. Rev. Vol. 54. N.S. p. 321.

from those of their countrymen. It is very certain that the majority of celebrated men, whom Genoa boasts of having produced, were not indebted for their success to the encouragement which they received from their own country. The two brothers of Columbus found it in Spain, Augustin Justiniani at Rome and in France, and we know too well how James Bonfadius, the only man of letters who was invited by the republic to Genoa, terminated his days. In conclusion, however, we must confess that the Genoese have always evinced an energetic character; and that, whenever they have had an opportunity of displaying their talents, they have constantly distinguished themselves. Three or four Genoese or Ligurian popes, Innocent IV, Nicholas V, Sixtus IV, and Julius II, have established remarkable epochs in the history of the church and of the empire; and we must add that they afford a favourable idea of the Ligurian character, but not properly of that of the Genoese.

This picture of the Genoese, in a work printed at Paris, does not manifest a desire on the part of the French to flatter their new subjects; and we should think that the Ligurian republican will not feel any strong predilection for his new connections, after such an account of his fellow citizens.

It is stated at the end of the 4th section that the three provinces of Alba, Acqui, or Upper Montferrat (*Mons ferax*), and Casal, contained in 1795 a population of nearly 300,000.

In the enumeration of the districts which are assigned to the formation of a department, intended to bear the name of the place in which *Bonaparte* obtained his great victory in Italy, we meet with this notice:

'*Marengo*, more celebrated at the present day than was ever the promontory of Actium, was before 1800 the most dull and obscure village of the districts belonging to Alessandria. The name seems to indicate that it was built on a marshy soil, with stagnant water, in spite of its two little brooks. It may, no doubt, become a beautiful city, which, without equalling Alessandria in grandeur and importance, will have the honour of giving name to a noble province.'

The loss sustained by the king of Sardinia, in consequence of the revolutionary war, may be ascertained by a perusal of these pages. M. DENINA represents his possessions on the *terra firma*, including Piedmont and Savoy, to have been equal, in 1792, to a tenth part of France and to an eighth part of all Italy; these provinces being found to extend two hundred and ten Italian miles in length and 300 in breadth, to contain a surface of 1260 * square miles, and a population of 2,200,000 inhabitants, who paid a revenue to the sovereign of from twenty to twenty five millions of Piedmontese livres.

* So says the book, but the number should be 63,000; or about 37,000 *English* square miles.

nearly equal to 30,000,000 of French livres, (p. 210.) A statement somewhat different is given in the notes, p. 400.

With reference to the productions of Piedmont, the author informs us that

‘ This country yields all the kinds of vegetables which are to be found beyond the Alps, without excepting any one species of plants. It is well known that Piedmont exports both corn and rice; and it might export much wine, if the carriage from Montferret were more easy and less expensive. Oneglia and Nice might supply the other provinces with quantities of good oil, oranges, lemons, and limes. Fruits of all sorts, such as apples, pears, peaches, and plums, are every where in great abundance. Figs, mushrooms, and black and white truffles, are even important objects of commerce. Chesnuts, which are served up with the desert at the tables of the rich, are, during a full third of the year, the chief nourishment of several cantons; while in others Indian corn or maize is particularly useful. Cattle and fowls are plentiful, and of good quality.

‘ Large fish are rare in Upper Piedmont, but in general the inhabitants are here better supplied with this article than those of the countries which border on the Appenines. The vallies of the Po, of Vraita, of Lucerne, and of Susa, furnish excellent trout; and the Lago Maggiore and the Tessino afford different kinds of other aquatic animals. The Sturgeon, which rarely ascends so high up the Po as Turin, is often caught at Valenza and Casal. In other cantons, tench, lampreys, and eels abound: but game does not constitute an article of subsistence. The large game, reserved by the princes for the pleasure of hunting, was rather a scourge than a benefit, in consequence of the ravages committed by the deer in the fields: but the hare, though doing some damage, made ample recompence by its flesh and its skin. Pheasants are rare: but partridges are sufficiently abundant; and in some places, as in the valley of Aoste, they are better than in any other country.

‘ The materials which serve for clothing are of different kinds and qualities. The wool of Piedmont, known from the time of the Romans to be rather coarse, will not bear a comparison with that of the south of Italy; nor with that of Provence, Languedoc, and most of the provinces of France. It is, however, possible that the breed which has been introduced into the *arrondissement* of Civas, in the department of the Doire, will in future yield fleeces of a better quality. The soil of Piedmont is either too rich or too gravelly for the growth of flax, the finest sort of which is raised in sandy ground. On the other hand, hemp is produced in such abundance, that, in addition to the home consumption, considerable quantities for cordage are sent to the ports of the Mediterranean. Moreover, the little portion of silk which they spin in the villages at the foot of the Alps, while in various ways it supplies the place of wool and flax, is no impediment to the commerce of this article, which is exchanged by the Piedmontese for a variety of luxuries that use has rendered indispensable, such as sugar, coffee, and spices.

‘ This

This country, sufficiently rich in vegetable and animal productions, does not equally afford the objects of the mineral kingdom, though few things are wanting for ordinary purposes. If the quarries of Biellois, of the valleys of Lanz, of Pont, of Locane, and of Aoste, yield but little gold and silver, they furnish an abundance of copper. Tin and lead are not *desiderata*, nor have the people any occasion for the importation of foreign iron.

‘The genius and character of the Piedmontese hold, like their language, a middle station between those of the Italian and the French: but this is not altogether the case in every province. One of these differs from another, as is observable between the several provinces of France.’

After this sketch of the natural productions, &c. of Piedmont, we are presented with an account of its political constitution and form of government, of its magistrates and legislation, of its court, religious worship and ecclesiastical government, and of the state of letters and the arts at the conclusion of the last century: but these details occupy too many pages to allow us to include them in our extracts.

Of the capital of Austrian Lombardy, the author furnishes both the antient and the modern history:

‘Though, (says he,) *Milan* be not the most antient of the cities of Upper Italy, it is that of which the origin is most known. Its founder was the famous Bellovesus, cotemporary with Tarquin, the 5th king of Rome, about the year 620 before the Christian æra. It was at that time, as Strabo tells us, only a village, but it very soon became the capital of the country of the Insubres, who till then had resided in hamlets and open villages. The Romans, under the consuls M. Claudius and Cn. Marcellus, after having defeated the Gauls in several battles, took possession of it: but, since no mention is made of it in the minute accounts of Hannibal’s expedition, it could not have been a place of any great strength or importance. Cæsar, who must have often passed through it, in going from Cisalpine and Transpadane into Transalpine Gaul, does not once name Milan; and even during the civil wars of Cæsar and of the Triumvirs who succeeded him, we do not find that any of the divers parties were forced to occupy it, as they were obliged to do with respect to Modena and other Italian cities. It was not till towards the end of the third century, when some of the successors of Augustus resided there with their court, that the city of Milan began to be considered as rivalling the capital of the Empire. The kings of the Goths and the Lombards do not seem to have given it the preference over Pavia, Asti, or Turin: but, after the revival of the Western Empire, it grew to such consequence as to be regarded as the principal city of Italy, equal at least to the Rome of that day. The facility with which it recovered itself, after the disasters that it suffered under the emperor Frederic I, is a sufficient proof of the greatness of its resources. Becoming since a formidable republic, under the presidency of its archbishops, it prospered internally, and extended its dominion over the neighbouring

bouring districts. Otho Visconti, created archbishop in 1267, and Matthew, his nephew, a good soldier for the time, and as good a politician as his uncle, seized the government, and transmitted it to their posterity, without taking any other title than that of Lords of Milan : but John Galias, the younger son of the nephew of the archbishop Otho, (or, to speak in plain English, Otho's younger grandson,) got himself created Duke by the Emperor Wenceslaus.

‘ Milan was now one of the three principal cities of Europe, having the same rank with Prague and Paris, capitals of two kingdoms, which were not more considerable than the country possessed by the first Duke Visconti. This powerful state, being badly conducted, was divided under the sons and grandsons of John Galias. Under the fourth Duke, Philip Maria, it was re-united : but the Venetians took some portions of it ; and in order to preserve the great body, it was forced to cede the province or seignory of Verceil to the Duke of Savoy, Amadeus VIII ; while Francis Sforza, who had espoused the natural and only daughter of Philip Maria, on the death of his father-in-law, seized on the capital of the state and on several dependent cities. Setting aside, however, the consideration that he ought to have given up some of them, he left a perpetual subject of contest among the different claimants to the succession of Philip Maria, one of whose sisters had been married to Charles, Duke of Orleans. By this title, Louis XII., king of France, and after him Francis I, considered themselves as masters of the Milanese. Ludovicus Sforza, surnamed the Moor, who had robbed his nephew of it, being betrayed by the Swiss, was conducted a prisoner into France, where he died.

‘ The Emperor Charles V. having driven out the French, united, for a short space of time, this grand fief to the Germanic Empire, and afterward invested with it his son Philip II. By this step, more than the half of Lombardy passed under the dominion of Spain, and hence many wars in Italy arose during the seventeenth century, in which the French made various efforts to expel the Spaniards : who did not, however, lose the possession of this territory till the death of Charles II. the last king of Spain of the Austrian branch. The great war of the succession restored to the Imperial House of Austria those rich and beautiful countries, which have always borne the name of the Duchy of Milan : but, under the reign of Louis XV, they were twice in danger of falling into the hands of the French ; and in order to preserve the principal part, different districts were ceded to Charles Emanuel III, who had besides sufficient title to obtain the whole, as being the descendant of Catherine of Austria, daughter of Philip II. By the dismemberment which the Duchy had suffered, the capital lost at least one third of the population which it possessed under the governments of Spain and Austria, but without parting with any of its grandeur, riches, or magnificence.’

In the subsequent delineation of the character of the inhabitants, the Milanese are said to have acquired such a reputation
for

for being great eaters, that their gluttony is become proverbial.

Appended to the account given in the body of the work, is a long note, which represents the history of this city as including the most important part of the history of Italy, from the foundation to the decline of Rome. The etymology of *Milan* is also attempted; and we are informed that the derivation from the Latin words *medio* and *amnes*, (*in the midst of rivers*,) though not quite exact, approaches near the truth; for the name is composed of *medio*, and, not *amnes*, but *lane* or *hlan*, which some people pronounce *klane*, and signifies *water, source of water, a stream or brook*. We shall not interfere with this etymology, any otherwise than by remarking that, as one half of the word has a Latin origin, the other half might have been allowed to have the same source, since little seems to be gained by the substitution.

The *ci-devant* Venetian provinces are now formed into the two departments of the Serio and the Mella. Modena and Ferrara are divided into the departments of Crostolo, Reggio, and Massa-Carrara, and of that of the Panaro, the lower Po, Modena, Ferrara, and Comachio. The legations of Bologna and Romagna now form the departments of the Reno and the Rubicon; and, in the recapitulation of the provinces which constitute the Kingdom of Italy, its population is stated at 3,552,555.

Many curious particulars are detailed in the remainder of this volume, respecting Placenza and Parma, Padua and the Italian part of the Tyrol, the republic of Genoa, and the origin, grandeur, and end of the republic of Venice: but we must restrict ourselves to one more extract, relative to the last mentioned fallen republic, which *Bonaparte* has *cut and carved* at his pleasure.

At the epoch of the revolution which the French effected there in 1797, the states of the republic of Venice contained about 3,500,000 individuals, besides the inhabitants of the isles which the Turks had not invaded. By the dismemberment of the provinces which *Bonaparte* gave to the Cisalpine Republic, the great portion ceded to Austria reckoned in it a population of nearly 2,000,000, or 1,900,000, which amounted, with a little difference, to that which the Milanese together with Mantua then counted; so that in this respect the exchange was equitable, as it was also in point of the revenues and natural growth of the two countries. In grain, fruits, and wine, the product is the same: while the silks of Trevisan, of Friuli, and of some cantons of Padua, counterbalance those which the Milanese, without Brescia and Bergamo, could collect in the environs of Brianza and of Varese, and in the valleys of Corno. The rich pastures of Lodosan give some advantage

the Milanese over the Venetians: but the forests of Friuli, and those which are distinguished by the name of the *Bosco de' Remi di San Marco*, are a full equivalent for the duties of the exportation of corn. Austria thus acquires a powerful means of creating a respectable marine, and of forming a sort of balance between the maritime states, at least in the Mediterranean.'

This concern for the maritime strength of Austria does not seem to have been manifested by *Bonaparte* in his subsequent arrangements; since, by appropriating to himself Istria and part of Dalmatia, in which the finest ship-timber in the world abounds, as well as by having resumed the sovereignty of Venice and the Venetian states, he cannot be said to have encouraged the Emperor of Austria to turn his attention to the formation of a navy: though he has left him the sea-port of Trieste, at the top of the Adriatic.

In the conclusion of his work, M. DENINA laments that the materials of which it is composed are not completely arranged, and that some errors of the press deform his pages: but on the whole it evinces his industry and knowledge, and will be advantageously consulted by those who are compiling geographical and historical delineations of this portion of Europe.

ART. IV. *Essai sur les Traces, &c.; i. e.* An Essay on the Traces of Antiquity which remain in the Character of the modern Italians, Sicilians, Sardinians, and Corsicans; followed by a summary view of the "Historical, Statistical, and Moral Picture of Upper Italy." By Charles DENINA. 8vo. pp. 200. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe. Price 4s. sewed.

THIS volume is intended as a kind of supplement to that which we have noticed in the preceding article, and contains many particulars that would be in vain sought in the *Tableau, &c.* but yet are very necessary in order to estimate the amount of *Bonaparte's* Italian acquisitions. The retrospect on antient character, which is given in the introductory chapters, presents an amusing subject for speculation; especially to those who wish to combine morals with politics, in their inquiries into the state and condition of social man.

It is well known that traits of countenance and of character distinguish the people of one country from those of another; and that these traits are propagated from age to age, in spite of the political changes and revolutions to which all quarters of the globe are subject. Soil and climate have been supposed to operate with great steadiness and effect in the formation of those qualities which discriminate the inhabitants of particular regions: but the case of the Jews

serves to shew that national character results from other sources; while, *à contra*, the loss of the Roman breed among ourselves and the other nations of the North may be adduced, to prove that the operation of natural causes will ultimately obliterate impressions made by conquest and similar operations. M. DENINA contrasts antient with modern Italy, and endeavours to demonstrate that a sameness of mind and of intellectual character is displayed by the former and the present inhabitants of the different districts of this beautiful peninsula; and he is forced, in order to explain his hypothesis, to assume in some measure the doctrine of the influence of soil and atmosphere on our habitudes and manners. This position must to a certain degree be true, though not in the extent to which he labours to carry it: but whether we assume or controvert the principle, the facts which are here advanced are too curious to be slightly discarded; and by the people, whom they more immediately concern, they will be examined with peculiar interest.

For the purpose of illustrating his proposition that, 'if in different places we find certain traits which distinguish one nation from another, we remark also much resemblance between the character of the antient people and that of those who have descended from them, or have replaced them on the same soil,' M. DENINA first takes a view of the lower part of Italy, formerly called *Magna Græcia* and Campania, and in more modern times Calabria and the provinces of the kingdom of Naples. We are desired to recollect that antient history and tradition represent the people of Brutium, Tarentum, and Sybaris, and the other inhabitants of this side of the peninsula, as more inclined to the sciences, to the arts, and to commerce, than to war; that we never find them associated with the Samnites in the long contests which they sustained with the Romans; and that even when the Tarentines were menaced with the fate of their neighbours, they took into their pay foreign troops, which were commanded by Pyrrhus king of Epirus. The fame of *Magna Græcia* for literature, science, and the arts is very great: but the compliment is carried a little too far when that country is exalted above antient Attica and Ionia, and when it is asserted as probable that the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* were composed in one of its colleges. By the list of celebrated writers and artists which this region has produced, and the reputation which it has maintained in later times, M. DENINA has amply sung its praise.

The character of the antient Roman is attempted *ad vivum* in the account of Latium, which was a country less devoted to refinement

refinement and luxury than Campania, Lucania, and Apulia: .

Accustomed as we are, from our infancy, to hear of and to admire the works which Rome has transmitted to us, we shall be surprised at finding that the country of Latium was less fruitful in men of genius than three or four other provinces of Italy. It was not, however, on the score of letters and the arts that Rome became illustrious; and we are forced to confess that the essential character of its people was that of ferocity. *Latium ferox*, (Hor. Lib. I. Od. 36.) this was the epithet which, under the mild reign of Augustus, a poet of the court conferred on the nation at large and the birth-place of the prince. The whole current of Roman history, from Romulus to Constantine, is indicative of the primitive character of the Romans and the people of Latium. Under the word *ferox* are indeed comprehended some laudable qualities, such as courage and bravery, but it particularly includes the ideas of fierceness, haughtiness, and a love of dominion and cruelty. All the exploits, remarkable events, antient laws, and customs of the Roman people, as well as the actions of their illustrious men, are tinged with this ferocity. The foundation of Rome by the leader of a gang of banditti, the death of its first king and the expulsion of the last, the consulate of Junius Brutus, the war of the Volsci, the life of Camillus, of Coriolanus, of the two Catos, of Scipio, of Marius, and Sylla, the conspiracy of Catiline, the death of Cæsar, the patriotism of Decius, Regulus, and Torquatus, the severity of Manlius, who caused his own son to be beheaded, the power which the law gave to parents over the life of their children, the taste of the people for the bloody spectacle of contending gladiators and wild beasts, all these facts impress the idea of a proud, haughty, and imperious character; and all these words are synonymous with *ferocity* in its true and proper acceptation. No people of Greece, probably with the exception of Thebes, have displayed a similar character. The fierce Spartans were less ferocious than the Romans, and the Athenians had no title to this character.

The Roman people were very slow in polishing themselves, and manifested equal tardiness in their taste for letters and the polite arts. They preserved the traces of their rusticity even to the reign of Augustus, (*hodieque manent vestigia ruris*, Hor. l. 2. ep. 1.) so illustrious for the progress which it made in those arts which contribute to civilization. Never did the people of Latium reach that degree of elegance which, in spite of themselves, they admired among the Greeks. Rome can count 600 years of literature, from the age of Cato the Censor and of Scipio Africanus to the removal of the seat of empire to Constantinople, and even to the invasion of the Barbarians; for after the reign of Constantine, Rome continued to be literary, notwithstanding the decline and corruption of taste. Yet of all the then known parts of Europe, the country of Latium is that which has produced the fewest great writers and celebrated artists. It is in the picture of Latin compared with that of Grecian literature, and particularly in the true character of Latin writers, that we discover

cover the above-mentioned discriminating features of this nation. The country of Athens, or of Attica, which in the height of its glory was not half the size of Latium, and did not include perhaps a quarter of the population which Rome itself contained under the first Emperors, could boast in its little circle the flourishing state of the arts, in consequence of the talents and application of its inhabitants; for from Themistocles to Demetrius Phalereus, all the great writers who have thrown lustre on Grecian literature,—Sophocles, Thucydides, Aristophanes, Plato, Xenophon, Epicurus, Demosthenes, many other poets, and all the philosophers and orators,—were Athenians, or at least natives of Attica. Latium, which, taken in its utmost extent, includes also the country of the Volsci, has produced only two men of superior genius, Cicero the orator and Ovid the poet: but Arpinum, the native place of the first, and Sulmo, that of the second, more properly appertain to Campania than to Latium.

Having by these and other remarks endeavoured to deprive the victorious Romans of their reputation for letters, M. DENINA changes the scene to modern Rome, and in like manner strips it of its borrowed plumes:

‘Undoubtedly (says he,) the difference is extreme between the military government of the former under the Scipios and the Cæsars, and that of the latter conducted by priests; yet in spite of this we shall discover many traits of resemblance between antient and modern Rome. If we examine the history of the Emperors, we shall there perceive that none of those who have succeeded to the family of Cæsar, and whose administration and exploits merit the praise of posterity, were raised to the Empire by birth.

‘Vespasian, Trajan, Adrian, the Antonines, Constantine, and after him Theodosius, arrived at the Purple by their merit. Among the sovereign pontiffs who have been the most renowned and revered, on account of what they have effected both for the civil state and for the church, we cannot name a single Roman, excepting Paul III.; and Paul III., like all the other popes and the powerful cardinals of Roman extraction, was less remarkable for literary qualities than for political genius. Some of them were distinguished by a sort of martial ferocity. If the antient Romans held political talents in high estimation, have not their successors been equally solicitous to acquire it? During how many ages have the ministers of the court of Rome pretended, that to them exclusively belonged the government of the whole world? It is true that these times are passed; and on the other side we must add that Rome, at all periods, has been the common country of people of merit, where all Christians might aspire to supreme authority, whatever was their condition, their nation, or their birth: in like manner as all the subjects of the Roman state, in the days of the Emperors, might attain the imperial dignity.

‘The destiny of Rome has twice influenced the fate of the universe, and twice has it dictated the law to Europe. The decrees of the emperors and those of the popes, the compilations of the jurists and those of the canonists devoted to the popes, have equally served for a

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text in the schools of the civilian, and for a rule in Christian tribunals. Thus, if we proceed to the sciences and arts which have been most particularly cultivated in Rome at different epochs, we shall perceive that the Romans have prosecuted, with singular ardor and assiduity, those sciences and arts which were most naturally connected with the spirit of domination.'

The parallel is continued through many pages; and even the Roman genius for architecture is regarded as connecting itself with their prominent feature,—the love of empire: but if this be the ruling passion of modern Romans, what mortification must the present condition of Italy inflict on their minds?

We know too little of the antient Sabines to contrast their prevailing customs and manners with those of the existing inhabitants of Urbino: but M. DENINA pronounces that they were wise and virtuous, and a better race than their conquerors; and he discovers among their modern successors, individuals not unworthy of their ancestors.

Of the people of Etruria, or Tuscany, it is remarked that, coming as it is supposed originally from Tyre or Egypt, they cherished that passion for religious rites and ceremonies which was so prevalent among the Egyptians; who are conjectured to have owed this propensity to their humid and marshy soil, which was promoted among the Etrurians by the low situation of maritime Tuscany. Our readers, however, will not perhaps discover the connection between swamps and devotion, and would be diverted by the adroitness with which the author manages the exceptions to this hypothesis which he finds among the inhabitants.

The character of the Ligurians is not much more favourably sketched here than in the preceding work: but their distinguishing feature, the republican love of independence, is contrasted with the partiality for a monarchical government, which is said to have been always displayed by their neighbours the Piedmontese,

That part of the work which is employed on the principal people who were formerly known by the name of Cisalpine and Lombards, and in later times by that of Italians properly so called, is divided into several sections, which distinctly treat of the *Insubrians* or Milanese; of the *Cenomane* Gauls (*Cenomani*) and their descendants, viz. the people of Brescia, Verona, Mantua, and Cremona; of the antient and modern Venetians; of those of the March of Trevisano, of Friuli and Istria; and of those of Romagna, Ferrara, and Bologna. In this discussion, many particulars respecting these Italians are enumerated; and, according to M. DENINA, certain

certain professions and occupations are as indigenous in certain districts as plants, so that the new possessor and governor of Italy is instructed where he may find materials for every purpose*. Pursuing his ideas of the influence of locality on man, the author observes that

‘Istria, which is an appendage to Venetian Dalmatia, as well as Friuli, on account of the nature of the country and the character of the inhabitants, may be compared to Liguria. Though the origin of these two nations is different, one coming from the west of Europe and the other from the east of Asia, one being Celtic and the other Illyrian, yet the Istrians and the Ligurians present themselves to us in the pages of antient history under a very similar aspect. Both were warriors, navigators, and merchants; both were accused of being pirates; and if, adverting to more modern times, we consider the Istrians as making one power with the Venetians, we shall find them the rivals of the Genoese in their traffic and enterprizes on the Levant.’

Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, the three largest islands of the Mediterranean sea, form the subject of the concluding part of M. DENINA's essay, in which he endeavours to maintain and illustrate his leading principle.—These three islands present us with people as different from each other as they are from the Italians; and the dissimilarity equally respects their sources in the primitive nations from which they proceeded, and the circumstances of the countries which they occupy, the one being volcanic, the second marshy, and the third woody and mountainous.

It does not appear that the Romans held either the island or the natives of Corsica in any estimation: but it is probable from one circumstance that they preferred the Corsicans to the Sardinians. The former are represented as a people constantly jealous of their liberty, and always firm and resolute in defending it; a character which they are supposed to derive from the wild and uncultivated state of the island. Its modern history is quoted as a proof of the martial spirit of the inhabitants; and the simplicity of antient manners was, as we are informed, in general preserved to the period of its subjugation by France. It is added that ‘a love and taste for the sciences, and a disposition adapted to the cultivation of the fine arts and the elegancies of life, were not so apparent in Corsica as in Sicily, or even in Sardinia. The nature of the country, the thin population of the towns, and their scanty commerce, were mighty obstacles to prevent this from being the case.’ Corsica, however, has produced some celebrated men,

* The work is dedicated, in the old style of adulation, to Eugene Napoleon, Vice-Roy of Italy.

as *Ganganelli* and *Braschi*; and we have a Corsican now acting on the political stage, who, though not mentioned as honouring the island which gave him birth, will make it more celebrated than either of the holy fathers who filled the Apostolic chair.

The chief value of the statistical sketch, subjoined to this volume, consists in the notices respecting the population of the regions which *Bonaparte* has added to the kingdom of Italy, as well as of the twelve departments into which this new kingdom is divided. Here the sum total of the population of these departments is given at 3,826,385; while the population of the Venetian district, including Friuli and the city of Venice, is stated to amount to 1,636,951, and that of Istria to 325,930; making an additional population of nearly two millions.—Both the productions and the wants of Upper Italy are enumerated by M. DENINA; who seems to be desirous of displaying the resources and of stimulating the exertions of this people.

ART. V. *A Critical History of the Roman Republic.* By M. LEVESQUE.

[*Art. concluded from the last Appendix.*]

IN pursuing with this ingenious writer the progress of his narrative and his discussion, we now find the scene expand, events of the highest interest crowd on us, and the author rises with the subject; or, to speak more correctly, the subject becomes more worthy of his superior pen. He betrays no ignorance of the details of Roman warfare, he seizes every striking trait of internal administration, and he exposes the maxims and views of that artful and consummate but often base foreign policy, our too early acquaintance with which prevents us from obtaining the intimate knowledge which the subject merits. Though a partisan of Carthage, and devoted to Hannibal, our narrator pays due tribute to the virtues and accomplishments of the two elder Scipios. Cato Major is also well depicted; the offensive traits are industriously collected, and have their effect in the picture; and it challenges contemplation, as it enables us to sit in judgment on the age which offered incense to the original. Under what mistakes, with respect to this object of Roman devotion, would posterity have laboured, had the life of him by Plutarch perished in the wreck of antient literature!

M. LEVESQUE is sufficiently warranted in stating that the Romans, through all the time during which their intercourse was confined to their nearest neighbours, remained barbarians. The Tuscans, it is well known, were acquainted with the arts,
but

but we are not informed of their progress in literature and philosophy: their coarse dramatic representations, however, and their combats of gladiators, are indications of a state remote from refinement. The austere Sabines possessed barely that knowledge which enabled them to supply wants of the first necessity; and though the arts were known in Latium, we have no evidence that its inhabitants made use of letters. It was not till the Romans carried war into the eastern part of Italy, then called *Magna Græcia*, that they were imbued with the literature of the Greeks. Minds formed in a happier mould, observes this author, learned the language of these people, and perused and grew enamoured of their works: but the earliest essay in the same walk, among the Romans themselves, does not go back to a more remote epoch than the first Punic war. Without this acquisition, which they derived from those with whom they became acquainted in consequence of waging war with them, the Romans (as is here remarked) would have been only fortunate robbers; and they never would have been formed into those illustrious conquerors whose talents and accomplishments have consecrated even their crimes.

The steps by which the Roman power increased are traced by M. LEVESQUE with great distinctness; and the obligations of its ambitious founders to their own valour and address, as well as those which they owed to the jealousy and blindness of their enemies, are distinguished and clearly pointed out. Want of concert, of which so many complaints have been made in our own days, is not less striking in the times of which an account is here given. The jealousy and pique incident to neighbouring nations, then as well as now, obstructed great views of general policy: the cities and states of Greece even assisted the Romans to reduce the power of a king of Macedon; and this same monarch, thus humbled, and the same jealous neighbours, lent effectual aid to the same faithless people in their war with Antiochus: while that potentate was deterred by envious and treacherous ministers, from listening to counsels by which he would have carried terror into the very heart of his enemy's country. It is here truly said 'that the Greeks of this period were no better than children, whom mere words could deceive.' After the humiliation of Philip, their fate wholly depended on the Romans; and when the cities, which had been subject to that prince, were declared free at the Isthmian games, the excess of their ridiculous joy is in the recollection of every one who has read their history. It must be owned that the policy of Rome no where appears to more advantage, than as it respects this not less singular than distinguished people. At first, the

the Romans levied no tribute on the Greeks, imposed no garrisons on them, and left them in possession of their antient laws; they received orders from no foreign authority; they were in appearance their own masters: but they did not perceive that they owed all to the forbearance of the Romans.

M. LEVESQUE very properly fixes the attention of his readers on the great change which took place in Rome, immediately after the conquest of Macedonia:

‘ On that occasion, the Romans were declared free from tribute, and none was levied on them from that period till the year following the death of Julius Cæsar: but the burthen was thrown on the conquered countries. The Romans, so far from submitting to taxation, thought only of enriching themselves at the expence of the state, and of its allies; and very soon after this period, the great magistracies were only sought as the means of making a fortune; the provinces became scenes of the most grievous oppression; and governments were obtained merely in order to be subjected to pillage. Immense sums were squandered to secure elections, in hopes that the appointments to which they led would indemnify and even enrich the candidates. The history of the so much boasted Roman virtue is enveloped in a cloud: but when we arrive at a more bright epoch, and we become really acquainted with the Romans, we find them to be a most odious people. No nation has practised all the species of corruption with so little shame.’

This author reprobates with laudable indignation the baseness and infamy of the conduct of Rome towards its hapless rival. The senate had secretly decreed the destruction of Carthage; their commander had received positive instructions to carry the decree into execution: but with this people, whom they had thus devoted, they still parleyed, and held out to them fallacious hopes. On the arrival of the Roman forces in Africa, the Carthaginians were required to deliver to the hands of their enemy three hundred of their principal youth; being assured that on this condition they should remain free, and enjoy their laws and their territory. This request was fulfilled; the youths were sent to Rome; and the Carthaginian deputies were informed that the terms of peace would be announced to them at Utica. When arrived there, they were ordered to deliver up their arms and warlike implements: this was also done: they were then told that they must quit Carthage, and remove three leagues into the interior, the Romans having resolved to raze their city. Such a demand, then first intimated, was peremptory; and the commander had no power to allow them time for sending ambassadors to Rome, in order to invoke the clemency of the senate.

The despair which this unparalleled treachery and this nefarious requisition inspired, and the efforts worthy of a better fate

fate which they excited, are well known. Among other reflections, the author makes the following on this conduct of the Romans towards their rival :

‘ There may be ministers in modern Europe capable of acting on the system of Roman perfidy : but what nation, on reading these tracts, would not blush to be compared with them ? I do not know that we are naturally better than they were, but we have been better educated. They confined all their affections within the precincts of their city, we extend ours to all mankind. We know and feel that our principal regard is due to our fellow citizens : but we know also that the love of mankind is a duty.’

We have here fine sentiments : but we must regret that they do not come with a better grace from the quarter whence they proceed. The moderns are certainly not chargeable with the wild phrenzy which can massacre in cold blood, and which can wreak vengeance on inanimate matter : but as far as pillage and perfidy are concerned, we fear that these base Romans are chargeable with no displays which cannot be paralleled in the conduct of those whom this writer extols and courts. Is he acquainted with the proceedings which led to the fall of Venice, and of Hesse, not to mention other instances ?

‘ We search,’ says the author, ‘ for the causes of what we call the Roman greatness ; and one is easily discovered, but we are unwilling to acknowledge it as such ;—it is this ;—abroad they had not a sentiment either of honour or humanity.’—May we in the same way account for a greatness which has suddenly grown up in our own times ?

The attempts of the Gracchi are related with great conciseness and perspicuity : the intrigues and counter-intrigues are well pointed out : the whole relation shews great judgment and able discrimination ; and the reflections and observations with which it is interspersed are admirable. Introductory to his account of these commotions, the author states a curious change which had gradually taken place in the economy of the Roman state. That portion of a conquered territory, which it had been usual to distribute among the poor citizens, the wealthy in later times had contrived to get into their own possession ; and the cultivation of these lands was not intrusted by rich proprietors to freemen, but slaves were exclusively employed : a preference which was given on account of the liability of the former to serve the state in the field, and also of the frequent calls on them to attend the comitia. It consequently happened that the freemen decreased daily, and the slaves multiplied. Italy became thinly peopled with freemen, and covered with slaves ; and lands formerly managed by victorious hands were now worked by servile labourers.

As far, therefore, as it was the object of the elder Gracchus to remedy this evil, he was guided by true policy, and the wishes of all enlightened citizens must have been in his favour.—It is worthy of notice that oratory was first introduced among the Romans by these ill-fated brothers.

In these volumes the reader will find not only the progress of corruption distinctly marked, but he will see traced step by step the inroads on those constitutional forms which were the guards of the freedom of the state, from the successive consulships of Marius to that monopoly of power which was realized by Pompey. M. LEVESQUE anxiously exhibits to our view all those events that occurred in the declining days of the republic, which create disgust; and that dispose the mind for the subversion of those forms under which Rome had risen to be the mistress of the world, and the human mind had attained an intellectual height beyond which it seems not to have the power of ascending. Those immortal geniuses, who diffused such splendour over the Augustan age, were the offspring of a different order of things; though despotism, it is true, bribed them to offer incense to it, and to gild the slavery which it introduced.—In no part of his work is the author more the partisan than in his accounts of the Roman affairs under Pompey and Cæsar. It is not to be disputed that Cæsar was by far the superior man; and perhaps a man with greater talents for military command and civil rule, and who united to them more of general accomplishments, has never lived: but we must shut our eyes against the clearest evidence, before we can agree with this writer in ascribing the ascendancy long enjoyed by Pompey to low art and intrigue; practices which, it ought to be recollected, were not disdained by his more splendid and imposing antagonist. This portion of the history is much laboured, and will be read with great interest and advantage by those who are sufficiently acquainted with the subject, to enable them to distinguish between the facts stated and the conclusions here drawn from them. That Pompey forced Cæsar to appeal to arms, that he as little respected the liberty of his country as his rival, that he would have been not less despotic had the fortune of war declared in his favour, and that he would have been more revengeful and cruel, we shall not dispute with the advocate of Cæsar: we also admit that he has obtained the reputation, without meriting it, of falling in defence of the liberty of his country, to which he certainly was as little friendly as his opponent: but when we have conceded thus much, we cannot with the author go the length of representing him as destitute of every eminent qualification. Be it also remembered that all
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the virtue, the respectability, and the wealth of Rome were on the side of Pompey.

The talents of Cicero, and the obligations under which his genius has laid all future times, inspire the present author with no indulgence for his failings, but the orator is severely and we think unjustly treated by him. He charges him with *over-rating* his services in defeating the conspiracy of Catiline :—but do we derive this impression from the perusal of Sallust ? That historian was no friend of the orator, and his testimony ought on every ground to overbalance the insinuations of a later and more questionable writer. If we allow weight to the cavils here advanced in opposition to the most unexceptionable contemporaneous accounts, and the clearest evidence of facts, we must renounce all faith in history. Not less does the author seem to us to lose sight of the duty of an impartial narrator, when he acquits Cæsar of any privity to this foul transaction.—With regard, however, to the base complaisance of Pompey towards Sylla, and the noble disregard of him shewn by Cæsar, these are transactions which M. LEVESQUE does not fail to place in a forcible light.

A trait of the times highly worthy of notice is here extracted from one of Cicero's epistles to Atticus. On the orator's return from banishment, his houses, it is well known, were rebuilt at the public expence. While his town-residence was re-constructing, the infamous Clodius, attended by a troop of armed men, chased away the workmen, materially damaged the house of his brother Quintus, and attempted to set it on fire : the monster then traversed the city in search of his enemies, in order to put them to death ; and he offered their liberty to such slaves as would join him. Cicero himself, a few days afterward, was attacked by men armed with stones, staves, and swords ; and with difficulty he found shelter under the roof of a friend. The house of Milo was actually set on fire, but the incendiaries were opposed by his slaves, and many lives were lost.—All this was the work of Clodius ; who was at the time a candidate for the edileship, and who succeeded in obtaining it, though criminally prosecuted by Milo. These disgraceful scenes excite a remark from the author,—‘ never was the like seen except in this famous republic of Rome ;’—and the moral, which French readers are expected to draw from this relation, no doubt is that they ought to be duly thankful for being blessed with a master who maintains a vigorous police among them.—It is to be lamented that these violences, which occurred in the latter days of the republic, were less the consequences of an over-

grown empire, than the effects of the infamous contrivances of the great men of Rome; who countenanced wretches like Clodius, in order to induce the peaceable citizen to forego liberty, and submit to their domination.

If M. LEVESQUE be far from just to Cicero, he has made admirable use of the orator's letters; and, by connecting together the facts which lie scattered in them, he has been enabled to give a more satisfactory view of many of the transactions of the period to which they refer, than has been afforded by any preceding writer. The result of the whole is that Pompey, from an early age, was seeking by various means to render himself master of Rome; and that, in pursuit of this object, he forced Cæsar to make war on his country, or to give himself up to certain destruction. The practices of Cæsar to obtain the same supremacy are rather passed over than called in question by the present author.

Alive to all that respects his hero, M. LEVESQUE is anxious to repel the injurious reports which prevailed respecting him at the time of his residence in Egypt; and which have represented him as wasting precious weeks and months in the arms of Cleopatra, and in a vortex of pleasure. These he treats as malicious rumours, and occupies him during the nine months, of which no intelligence from him reached Rome, in reducing Pharnaces: but the conqueror's own memorable and laconic account of that contest, *veni, vidi, vici*, does not well accord with the hypothesis of his modern vindicator.

Cæsar's information was not such as rendered evident to him the inefficacy and inutility of sumptuary laws: but an enactment of a more salutary kind was that by which cultivators were compelled to have one third of their labourers consist of freemen.

In pleading the cause of Cæsar before the present generation, M. LEVESQUE is obliged to admit that, through the intervention of his creatures, he procured for himself the whole power of the state; and that he accepted every sacrifice and homage which the most abject could devise, and which free and manly minds dared not to oppose. He suffered himself to be called *Jupiter Julius*: a college of priests called *Julians* was consecrated, to observe the rites of the new divinity: a temple was erected to his honour, of which Mark Antony was the pontiff: one of the months was called by his name; and his birth-day was observed as a festival. The senate never met except for form. Cæsar never deigned to consult the conscript fathers, but drew up himself the decrees, called then *senatus consulta*, and subscribed them with the names of such senators as first occurred to him. He received
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the consuls and prætors, who waited on him to announce fresh honours decreed to him by the senate, in a sitting-posture; and the probability is that he had the weakness to desire to be invested with the title of king. To shew, as this author does, that such would have been a preposterous wish, by no means overturns the strong presumptions of the fact which history furnishes.

All those steps which contributed to overturn the republic, and paved the way to the absolute rule of one man, are here supported and defended. Hence the honours of the proscription of the second triumvirate are softened down, and the number of victims diminished, in opposition to the voice of history. Nothing so much disgraces the author before us, as the manner in which he speaks of the sacrifice of Cicero by Octavius; nor does he seem to be sensible to the deep stain which this base concession has inflicted on his memory, the odium of which his subsequent high fortunes have been ineffectual to wipe away. Seldom have we felt more disgust than in perusing M. LEVESQUE's account of the fall of this great ornament of free Rome, and in observing the apathy with which he relates the treachery and brutality which accompanied that tragic event. The Roman orator caught the spirit of the times, justified tyrannicide, and rejoiced in the fall of the man who had subverted the freedom of his country: but it is the object of this author to induce on his readers a persuasion that Cæsar, in setting up absolute power, acted a meritorious part; and, in order to support his preposterous design, he is obliged to represent the writers, who at a later period describe those events, as calumniators and violators of truth. 'Under the empire,' he tells us, 'the Romans groaned almost incessantly beneath odious tyrants: but of the republic, which existed no longer, authors drew a flattering image; they hated Cæsar, whom they accused of subverting it; they hated his partisans; they revered the memory of his murderers; and thus it is that the faction of the Pompejans subsisted for many ages after the death of Pompey, and is not extinct even in our days.'

It would seem that the Romans never sunk to that pitch of degeneracy which is exemplified by this writer, in abstractedly extolling despotism and depreciating liberty. It is the incessant tyranny which followed, and all its dire effects, (which are here admitted,) that condemn most strongly the usurpation of Cæsar, that have rendered his memory odious, and that make us revere the intentions of his destroyers, while we reprobate the deed. In our opinion of the effects of that act, however, we do not much differ from this writer; 'the perpetrators,' he

observes, 'intended by it to save the Republic, but they only dug the grave into which, after thirteen years of grievous suffering, she ultimately fell. During this period, every country subject to Rome became the scene of bloody contests, and was harassed and laid waste in turn by Antony, Lepidus, Octavius, Decimus Brutus, Marcus Brutus, or Sextus Pompey. Antony and Octavius find themselves left alone in this vast scene of carnage; which they are about to subject to fresh havoc, in order to settle their own quarrels.' For all this, however, are the murderers of Cæsar alone to blame; and must not the daring subversions and bold innovations of the usurper come in for any share of the censure?

In the vast maze of Roman affairs, down to the period of the battle of Pharsalia, we found the present writer a guide who, if liable to some blame, deserved considerable praise on the whole: but from that epoch to the conclusion of his narrative, our feelings of disgust are too often excited, by the frequent interposition of reflections and suppositions which facts do not warrant, and which are in themselves unwelcome and odious to the lovers of practical liberty. Yet we, perhaps, ought less to censure the author, than that busy and anxious tyranny which requires that the monuments and remains of ancient times should be perverted and falsified, in order to confirm its power and to promote its purposes.

M. LEVESQUE's accounts of the several emperors are extremely short, but have the merit of being in the main correct. With the exception of the first reign, they form a very good comment on the services rendered to the Roman people by the usurpations of Julius and Augustus, and supply a ready antidote to the poison interspersed throughout the latter part of the author's own last volume.

ART. VI. *L'Art de la Teinture du Coton en rouge, &c.* ; i. s. The Art of dyeing Cotton red. By M. J. A. CHAPTAL, Member and Treasurer of the Senate, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 172, and 4 Plates. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5s.

ALTHOUGH many circumstances of a political and commercial nature contribute, in most cases, to give a decided superiority to the manufactures of this country, it would appear that, in some few branches, we are still excelled by the French. We particularly refer to such as depend on the application of chemical principles, of which the art of dyeing may be regarded as one of the most important. This superiority on the part of our rivals does not, we conceive, arise from the knowledge of chemistry

chemistry being more perfectly attained or more extensively diffused among them, but on the circumstance of their scientific men applying themselves more immediately to the cultivation of these arts. The improvements made in this country are frequently the result of accident, or are introduced merely from the experience of the manufacturer; who endeavours to imitate effects which he sees produced, without understanding their cause, or indeed comprehending the nature of the process by which he attempts to re-produce them. In the volume before us, we have an example of one of the most learned of the French chemists devoting himself to the minute details of a practical art, and describing, with the most perfect accuracy, all the parts of a manufacturing process.

M. CHAPTAL commences with a short history of the development of the general principles of dyeing. It was *Bergmann* who first entertained just views on this subject, and who shewed that it was not merely a mechanical adherence between the stuff and the colouring matter, but that a real chemical union took place between them. The theory was much advanced by *Berthollet*, to whom this work is dedicated; and the subsequent additions that have been made can be regarded as little else than completing and illustrating the system which he had established. The particular process which forms the object of this treatise,—the application of the madder dye to cotton,—was formerly confined to Turkey; and it is only of late years that the art has been practised in this part of Europe. It is now, indeed, thoroughly understood, but yet it is a process of considerable difficulty, and requires the greatest nicety in the operation. We may read the book now before us with double advantage, since it not only presents us with the ideas of an enlightened philosopher, but contains the result of an extensive application of them to actual practice; for the writer informs us that he has for some time conducted a large manufactory of this kind, and that no process is recommended in this volume which has not been sanctioned by ample experience.

The author takes up his subject from the very beginning, and occupies the first two chapters in describing the proper situation for the establishment, and the arrangements necessary for carrying on the different processes to the best advantage. The descriptions are accompanied by plates of the several parts of the building, of the different kinds of vessels to be employed, and of the manner in which the operations are to be performed. The 3d chapter is devoted to the consideration of the materials which are used in dyeing cotton by madder; viz. the madder itself, olive-oil, soda, alum, and galls. The directions given for ascertaining the quality of the oil may serve as a

specimen of the author's attention even to minute circumstances :

' The most simple, and, at the same time, the most certain method of ascertaining the quality of the oil is the following. We pour into a glass some drops of the oil under examination, and on it a quantity of the lixivium of Alicant soda, of one or two degrees of *Baumé's* hydrometer. The mixture then becomes of a milky whiteness : this saponaceous liquor is poured several times from one vessel to another, and the glass is then placed on a table, to let the fluid remain at rest. The oil is declared good if, after having been at rest for some hours, the liquor continues to be white and saponaceous : but it is considered as bad if it rises to the surface in the form of white drops, or if the mixture becomes clear, or only slightly opaque, or if a stratum of soft soap be formed at the surface, while the remainder of the fluid acquires the appearance of butter-milk.'

Directions equally precise are given respecting the other articles that are employed in the operation. When speaking of the different kinds of soda which occur in commerce, M. CHAPTAL is led to observe, that the qualities of this substance may differ considerably according to the state of the plant from which it is obtained. He imagines that it is only formed at the end of the summer, when the vegetation of the plant has ceased ; and that, if we attempt to procure it at an earlier period, the salt will not possess the genuine properties of soda. As an illustration of this principle, a curious fact is mentioned respecting the tamarisk. In the ashes of this plant is contained a very considerable quantity of the sulphate of soda : but it has been found that, if the branches be burned while they are full of sap, and in the act of vegetation, a strong odour of sulphurated hydrogen is exhaled, and no sulphate of soda is found among the ashes. The chief circumstance to which we should attend in the choice of the alum is that it be entirely free from iron, and in this point the Roman alum excels every other species. The author, however, informs us that the alum which is formed by uniting its constituent parts, according to a process originally suggested by himself, promises to answer every purpose of the Roman alum.

Chapter IV. consists altogether of minute details respecting the arrangements and manipulations of different parts of the process ; and the fifth gives an equally distinct account of the means by which the cotton is made to assume the dye. The operation is divided into four stages,—the preparation of the cotton,—the application of the mordants,—the application of the madder,—and the brightening of the colour. The mordants employed are alum and galls, and the nitrate of tin is used to bring out the colour. After having described the process that

is found on the whole most certainly effectual, the author notices some modifications which it has received, either for the purpose of diminishing the quantity of labour, or for that of substituting some less expensive articles in the room of those generally employed. Potash has been tried, and appears to fulfill every purpose of soda: but no astringent has yet been obtained which can supersede the use of galls.

Besides the red dye which is obtained from madder in the usual process, it occasionally becomes an object with the manufacturer to produce other shades of colour, and particularly violet. This is generally effected by the mixture of indigo: but it appears that a better colour may be obtained by mixing with the madder some preparation of iron; and the pyrolignite is the one which the author has found most eligible.

The last chapter contains an account of the manner in which the madder operates, and the principles on which the different steps of the process are conducted. This discussion leads the author to give an analysis of madder, with an account of the effects produced on it by different chemical re-agents; and from these experiments he deduces the following conclusions. 1. That the colouring principle of madder is a natural mixture of yellow and red, which is fixed in the vegetable by an extractive matter, that is more abundant in the bark than in the wood; 2. That the yellow principle is extracted in a greater quantity than the red by the first washings; 3. That the two principles cannot be kept dissolved in water, except in a very small quantity; and, 4. That the two principles have a very strong affinity to alum and oil. Proceeding on these data, the theory of the process becomes obvious; the cotton is impregnated with oil, and afterward with a salt of alumine, for the purpose of enabling it to attract a sufficiently large portion of the colouring matter of the madder. The galls which are used seem to co-operate to the same end; for it appears that they form a kind of union with the oil, and enable it still more strongly to attach the colouring matter to the cotton. When the process is complete, the cotton is found to contain a considerable quantity of oil, galls, and alumine, which are strongly united to it, and which are each of them saturated with the colouring matter.

We have been induced to give rather a full account of the contents of this volume, because we conceive that they may afford some useful information to the manufacturer, and still more in order to induce our scientific chemists to follow the example which has been set them by M. CHAPTAL, in applying their knowledge not merely to illustrate the general principles of an useful art, but to perfect its minute practical details.

ART. VII. *Histoire Naturelle, Générale, et Particulière, &c.* ; i. e. The Natural History, general and particular, of Crustaceous Animals and Insects, forming Part of the Continuation of the Works of *Leclerc de Buffon*, and of the complete Course of Natural History, edited by C. S. *Sonnini*, Member of several learned Societies. By P. A. LATREILLE, Member of the National Institute of France, of the Linnéan Society of London, of the Philomatic and Natural History Societies of Paris, and of that of Sciences, Belles Lettres, and Arts, of Bourdeaux. 14 Vols. 8vo. Paris. Years X—XIII.

SEVERAL years have now elapsed since M. *Sonnini* and his coadjutors completed their design of re-publishing and greatly extending the writings of the celebrated *Buffon*, so as to embrace all the departments of Natural History. The volumes on our table form the most recent portion of the series that has come within our reach, and comprize the results of twenty years of patient meditation and research. The author's general and preliminary views of his subject are unfolded in the first three volumes, and will doubtless attract the distinguished attention of British entomologists ; especially of such of them as, in the present *blockade* of continental literature have not been able to procure the other valuable writings of this eminent naturalist.

M. LATREILLE's introductory volumes, then, contain eight discourses, a sketch of entomological systems, and an exposition of the families of his genera.

I. *Of the nature of Insects, and of their order in the series of animals.* This title naturally involves the meaning of the term *insect*, the limits of entomology, and the organic relations which insects bear to other animals. According to the author's comprehensive definition, an insect is *an animal without vertebrae, and with articulated feet.* In most instances, it is destitute of red blood.

' If, on crushing an insect, a bright red liquor, or even real blood' should flow from it, this liquor will be found to be matter lodged under the cornea of the eyes of many two-winged insects, or a fluid diffused in the body, but possessing no property in common with blood except the red colour ; or, finally, real blood, but extraneous to the insect, and which it has drawn from the body of some quadruped, bird, or other red-blooded animal, for the sake of nourishment. The characteristic property of blood is that of sustaining life by a constant circulation ; and no such principle exists in the red liquor which is sometimes observable in the body of insects. I speak not here of the crustaceous tribes ; for they seem to have a distinct system of circulation.'

Hence *Lamarck* and *Cuvier* have ranked the latter in a separate class, and the present author follows their example :
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but he begs leave to suspend his approbation of the division of *arachnida*, until the internal organization of the animals so denominated shall be better understood. Meanwhile, he justly conceives that the articulation of the limbs sufficiently discriminates insects from other animals that want the dorsal spine; for, though mollusca and worms may be furnished with tentacula, appendages, or tubercles, they are unprovided with those jointed and very moveable limbs which are so obvious in the others.

II. *Of the manner of studying Insects.* The first practical advice delivered under this head is to peruse, with care and diligence, the works of *Réaumur*, *Swammerdam*, *de Geer*, *Lyonnet*, &c. In those of the first mentioned naturalist, we only desiderate a description of the animal whose manners he delineates with so much pleasing interest and accuracy of detail. *De Geer*, it is admitted, sometimes falls into the opposite extreme, and describes with superfluous prolixity:

‘ But this defect is attended with fewer inconveniences than that of excessive brevity of description; for we may always lop redundancies, while it is often impossible to supply omissions. I would even advise every young writer on natural history to neglect no detail, especially in the description of merely insulated species. He will thus acquire the habit of seizing the most minute relations, and of distinguishing the smallest characters: nothing will escape him. Time will correct that tediousness of manner which is at first requisite to the due discrimination of general, individual, and accidental traits in the physiognomy of natural objects. Most of our great naturalists have commenced their career with long descriptions, and thus announced their desire of observing every thing; while those, whose early writings are not stamped with the same spirit, seldom become profound. So natural is it for man to relax from the rigor of his principles, that we may augur unfavourably of a superficial commencement.’

After having sufficiently perused and re-perused the works of *Swammerdam*, *Réaumur*, &c. the student is advised to direct his attention to the entomological philosophy of *Fabricius*, (which will be better understood through the medium of *Saint-Amand*'s book on the same subject,) and to a valuable memoir of *Olivier* on the masticating organs of insects. When he is thus initiated in the elementary principles of the science, the excellent history of the insects of the environs of Paris, by *Geoffroi*, should form the subject of his daily and hourly meditations. M. LATREILLE considers this estimable publication as the best key to the other systems of entomology, on account not only of the simplicity of the plan, but of the facility with which it identifies the nomenclature of *Fabricius* and that of *Linné*. *Schaffer*'s elements of entomology afford an accurate
intimation

intimation of the genera which had been established at the time of their publication; and *Sulzer*, or *Roemer*, his editor, might have proved of more essential service, if the plates had been executed on a larger scale, and accompanied by the requisite quantity of detail.

These instructions are followed by some judicious hints on the necessity and due limitation of entomological excursions; and on the most advantageous methods of observing, preserving, and examining insects, so as to become acquainted with their habits, and to assign to them their proper station in scientific arrangement. To general readers, however, these directions might appear in our pages minute and tedious, while the zealous student will be desirous of perusing them in the work itself: but the author's strictures on the basis of the *Fabrician* method are too pertinent to be suppressed:

‘ When I include the form of the body in the number of the generic characters of insects, I deviate from the principles of *Fabricius*, who, in all his primary sections, has respect to nothing but the feeding instruments. A method founded on a single organ is doubtless more beautiful and uniform: but is it practicable, at least in zoology, and especially in the study of insects? I think that it is not; and, even if it were, I should regard it as beyond the reach of ordinary minds. Alas! shall we labour merely to cherish our own self-love, and to please only a few of the learned? Shall we consider that geometrician, who proposes to his pupils demonstrations and solutions of those problems of which a *Lagrange*, a *Laplace*, and men of their high acquirements alone hold the key, as a better teacher than him whose lessons are conceived on a more humble scale? Let us simplify our methods, and adapt them to practice, whatever it may cost; let our readers follow and comprehend us; and let us always prefer general utility to a few testimonies of admiration.

‘ I think that I have sufficiently shewn my acquaintance with the feeding instruments of insects; and I do not imagine that *M. Fabricius*, and all the zealous partisans of his grand principle of the unity of generic characters, will tax me with ignorance of this part of the subject. If, therefore, I raise my voice against it, my only motive is the desire of extending and smoothing the road that conducts to science. Here, two sorts of characters at once present themselves to our notice;—the one more ingenious and perhaps more solid, but surrounded by difficulties of such magnitude as frequently to preclude our perception of it, or even to lead us astray:—the other is more simple, more obvious, and less consistent with itself: but the errors, into which its variations may drag us, are less numerous than those which arise from our embarrassment in comprehending the first. In such circumstances, is it not reasonable to prefer the second? I am far, very far indeed, from alleging that we should neglect the first. The true naturalist is aware of its importance; he knows that he should examine his object in all its aspects, and that he cannot properly establish a genus until he has collected its characters from all

its parts: but he writes for the many, and, putting-himself on their level, he traces an easy and practicable path. Let the characters of the gait or habit of the insect, then, accompany those which are furnished by the organs of manducation. *Fabricius* himself was sensible of the necessity of this combination, since his systematic entomology exhibits these two sorts of characters.

‘ I might moreover demonstrate, if I thought it proper, that this grand principle of characteristic unity is irreconcilable with the procedure of Nature. Is it not on the organs of motion, on the feet, or the wings, that she rests the foundation of her leading sections? and, if she thus acts in her principal divisions, she may likewise do so in those which are subordinate. These organs of motion, then, have, in the eyes of this sovereign ruler of our methods, an important value. Why does not M. *Fabricius* perceive this; and why should he rank us among bad entomologists, because we include in our examination all those parts which Nature herself tells us are almost equally essential? Would we, for example, adopt the ideas of that naturalist, who, in his general divisions of reptiles, should pass in silence the presence or absence of the limbs, and the disposition of the integuments? Would we subscribe to the opinion of the ornithologist, who, in his method, should keep every thing out of consideration but the Bill? Could we discern in those schemes, founded on a single basis, the procedure of Nature?—But let us drop these discussions.’

We are next presented with some considerable suggestions relative to the proper adjustment of genera and species, and the adoption of a commodious nomenclature. *Knock's Neue Beytrage zur Insectenkunde* is recommended as a masterpiece, on account both of the descriptions and the figures; and the student is dismissed with the salutary advice of aiding his descriptive talents by the use of the pencil.

III. *Of the instinct and industry of Insects.* This discourse, which occupies a large portion of the first volume, is divided into two chapters; I. *On the instinct and industry of Insects in their modes of nourishment*; II. *On the instinct and industry of Insects in their means of self-defence.* The former is again subdivided into two articles, the first of which treats of the mode of feeding by suction, and the second of the mode of feeding by bruising or mastication.

Among the sucking species, some imbibe only the juice of fruits and plants; others pump the substance of their fellows, and the blood of other animals; while a third class prey alike on the fluid of the animal and the sap of the vegetable kingdom. The structure and organization of each species is admirably adapted to its peculiar style of suction, as is here particularly illustrated in the history of the butterfly, bee, &c. In glancing at the cruel depredations of the gad-fly, the author adverts to a fact which is not generally known. ‘ It has been observed,’

observed,' says he, 'that the gad-flies which attack animals are always females, and that males have never been found among them. The same circumstance has been remarked with regard to the gnat, no male of which has been known to bite.'

Of insects furnished with a masticating apparatus, some confine themselves to a single species of food, and others have a more promiscuous appetite; some eat with little intermission, and others are capable of supporting a long term of fasting; some feed in the day time, and others during night; some consume a very small quantity of food, and others gorge themselves till they swell, and fall senseless to the ground. It is, however, worthy of remark that mineral or stoney substances form no part of their aliment, though some incautious observers have asserted that certain insects eat sand, gravel, and even iron. The truth is that they may sometimes be seen with these materials in their mouths, for the purpose of employing them in the construction of their retreats.

A species of moth is particularly fond of bees' wax, a substance which chemistry has not yet been able to decompose; and a caterpillar, found in a resinous excrescence or gall of the pine, is known to live on a substance analogous to turpentine, which would poison almost any other insect. The stratagems employed by several species to secure their prey, and especially the wiles and devices of the spider tribe, are not here overlooked; and the author asserts incidentally that he stuck a spider to a piece of cork, and precluded it from every species of food during four successive months, at the end of which it appeared to be as lively as if it had received its accustomed fare.

Chapter II. treats, in seven articles, of as many means of self defence, viz. evasion of the enemy, the habitation of solitary insects, that of those which live in families, direct resistance of the enemy by organs adapted to the purpose, resistance by faculties with which nature has endowed certain species of insects, resistance by the use of certain natural weapons, and resistance by stratagem. Of these, the first serves only as an apology for a few general reflections introductory to the others. The solitary and the social dwellings of insects are discussed with a minute but pleasing interest: but, though most of the particulars may be found at still greater length in the pages of *Réaumur*, *Bonnet*, *Lyonnet*, &c. we shall be contented to extract only the author's refutation of a popular error:

'The foresight of ants has been highly extolled; and, during the lapse of three thousand years, authors have repeated with complacency that they hoard provisions for the winter, and that they construct magazines in which they deposit the grain that they have collected

collected during the fine season. These provisions would be quite useless to them, since it has been proved that they sleep during the whole of winter, and that a very moderate degree of cold suffices to benumb the whole family. What use, then, could they make of those pretended granaries? The fact is that they do not construct them. The grain, which they convey with so much activity to their city, is merely designed for materials to be employed in the construction of their dwellings, as also little splinters of wood, straw, or any other substance.

Other parts of this chapter present us with much amusing but little original matter. They are followed by some excellent practical instructions relative to catching, preserving and transporting insects, &c. which we cannot make very intelligible without the plates, and for which the author is chiefly indebted to *Dufresne*, assistant-zoologist in the Museum of Natural History. To these is subjoined a very ingenious paper on the designations of the colours of insects, and on reducing the expressions of the intermediate shades to precise and determinate language.

IV. *Of the usefulness of Insects, and of their depredations.* With the exception of the crustaceous tribes, it is admitted that few insects contribute *directly* to the subsistence of the human race. The locust, indeed, forms an article of food in the deserts of Asia and Africa, but by no means an essential one; and, if it be long eaten, it is apt to induce leprosy. In some districts of India and America, the natives manifest a predilection for the larvæ of certain coleopterous insects, which lodge under the bark of trees: but their consumption is much limited, as they are seldom procured in any degree of abundance. The Romans, too, mention among their dainties the larvæ of an insect which they called *Cossus*, and which probably differed from the genus that bears the same name in modern nomenclature. If, however, the actual state of our knowledge permits us not to extend the list of insects which are directly subservient to the nourishment of man, it warrants the assertion that this class of animals furnishes us indirectly with very ample means of subsistence; myriads of birds and fishes live either wholly or partially on insects, or their larvæ; the bee provides us with honey from a thousand flowers; and the silk-worm and cochineal afford occupation and sustenance to multitudes.

In confirmation of the secondary advantages which are derived from the insect tribe, M. LATREILLE quotes the following facts:

‘The ichneumons alone destroy more caterpillars, in the course of a year, than all the birds which live almost exclusively at their expence,

expende, especially during the education of their young. These insects, which are so little known, and which so well deserve to be studied, possess, like various species of flies, the faculty of depositing, within the body of caterpillars and other larvæ, a number of eggs proportioned to the size of their victims. These eggs are the rudiments of larvæ that devour the very substance of the body in which they are inclosed, and sooner or later prove the death of the caterpillar. Some ichneumons, also, lodge their eggs only in the nymphæ or eggs. The diversity of their means of attack, and of the consequent result, is equally worthy of our admiration. They are capable of detecting the larvæ that is most completely concealed under the bark of a tree or in the middle of fruit, as well as that which wanders on the leaves. The most minute are not more effectually screened from their pursuit than the largest. Kirby mentions that, without them, the *tipula tritici*, which is scarcely visible to the naked eye, must have soon annihilated the hopes of the harvest in that part of England in which he made his observations.

‘Next to the ichneumons, we may mention the carabi, cicindels, spheges, wasps, chrysidæ, hornets, ants, dragon-flies, spiders, bugs, asili, empides, mantes, &c. as preying on other insects, and consuming a great quantity of them every year. There are, also, several larvæ, particularly those of the lady-fly, hemerobius, and some species of staphylinus, which in like manner feed on them, and consequently contribute to their destruction.

‘Some kinds of weevils, attelabi, moths, flies, &c. by depositing their eggs within our fruits, are occasionally the source of much mischief: but they are often serviceable in accelerating the maturity of these fruits, and in sometimes imparting to the pulp a more savoury flavour. The caprification of figs, a practice which has uniformly obtained in the islands of the Archipelago, and which has been so much extolled in France, since *Tournefort* first made it known, is nothing else than the introduction of a species of cinips or some analogous insect into the interior of the figs; an introduction which at once forwards the maturity and improves the delicacy of the fruit.’

The more obvious injuries inflicted on our persons and property by various species of insects are next enumerated, but are so familiar to observation that they do not require to be particularized by us.

V. *Of the internal organization of Insects.* Under this division, the author comprehends the internal structure of the body, the principles of circulation and respiration, the nervous and sensitive system, and the organs of digestion.—The discussion of these several topics is prefaced by a candid avowal of the imperfect state of our knowledge relative to the anatomy of insects, and by a merited compliment to the labours of *Swammerdam*, *Malpighi*, *Lyonnet*, and *Cuvier*, of which the author gratefully professes to have availed himself.

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The muscles of insects are represented as composed of bundles of soft flexible fibres, of a jelly-like transparency, and of a pretty uniform size and thickness throughout. The number of muscles in the human subject does not much exceed five hundred, whereas *Lyonnet* discovered in a single caterpillar four thousand and forty-one.—The presence of a heart in most of the species appears to be doubtful, and their mode of respiration is still involved in obscurity. M. LATREILLE touches slightly on the subject of their external senses, in the expectation of being furnished with more ample data than we now possess, from a series of experiments to be afterward instituted.—The number of hexagonal facets, or eyes, in some insects, is known to amount to fourteen thousand. That they possess the faculty of hearing can no longer be doubted, though the auricular organ has not been distinctly ascertained. Their power of smelling may also be proved by a great variety of instances: but a considerable diversity of opinion exists concerning the seat of this particular sense. The present author is inclined to place it in the antennæ, for these reasons:

‘ 1. The exercise of the sense of smell consists only in the action of air impregnated with odoriferous particles on a nervous or olfactory membrane, which transmits the sensation.

‘ If insects possess an organ having similar nerves with which air, charged with odoriferous particles, comes in contact, that organ may be regarded as destined to smell. If the *antenna* present a tissue with many nerves, why not allow such tissue to be olfactory? would not this hypothesis be more simple, and more conformable to the rules of analogy, than that which places the seat of smell at the opening of the stigmata? Besides, the crustaceous animals, which approach so nearly to insects, appear to me to recede from this last explanation.

‘ 2. A great number of male insects have the *antenna* more developed than those of the females, a fact which is easily explained on the supposition that these organs are the seat of smell.

‘ 3. It is certain that most of those insects which live or lay their eggs in corrupted animal or vegetable matter,—in stagnant water,—in all substances in short which, for a time, affect one situation rather than another,—have, with very few exceptions, the antennæ more unfolded.—They required a more perfect sense of smell, and find it accordingly in the organization of the *antenna*.

‘ 4. Many insects, which subsist merely on plunder, have their *antenna* simple; while those of similar and sedentary habits have none. Such are my *acères*, and a large portion of the *arachnides* of *Lamarck*.

‘ 5. Insects discover their habitation as well as their food by means of smell. I have cut off the *antenna* from many insects, and

they have forthwith fallen into a state of stupor, or derangement, and seemed to be incapable of recognizing their abode, or the food which was placed beside them. This experiment deserves to be prosecuted with more minuteness.

‘ 6. The nerves terminate in the *antenne*, and their articulations, though externally covered with a thickish membrane, are hollow, and internally lined with a soft substance which is often aqueous, the extremity of which when exposed to the air may receive its impressions.

‘ Such are the ideas which I submit to the experience and judgment of naturalists more enlightened than myself.’

VI. *Of the external organization of Insects.* This discourse is purely technical, and consists of an enumeration and short definitions of the external parts, with brief explanations of the scientific terms.

VII. *Of the generation of Insects.* Many of the criteria of sexual distinction, and some of the most remarkable anomalies in the history of amorous intercourse and production, are here stated with sufficient perspicuity.

VIII. *Of the instinct of Insects in the preservation of their offspring, and of their metamorphoses.* The various contrivances to which the parent insect has recourse for the protection of its eggs and young, and the wonderful transformation which most of the species are destined to undergo, are the two leading topics of this discourse. M. LATREILLE's statements, however, though able and amusing, are not new, and afford little room for comment.—They are followed by synoptical views of the methods of some of our most celebrated entomologists, and by a more detailed exposition of the generic families of his own institution. To the designations and divisions of these families we may probably advert, when we resume the examination of this estimable performance. In the meanwhile, we shall close these three preliminary volumes by expressing our desire that their materials had been more skillfully arranged, and treated with a more undeviating regard to good writing and the genuine spirit of didactic composition.

[To be continued.]

ART. VIII. *Traité Élémentaire de Minéralogie, &c. ; i. e. An Elementary Treatise on Mineralogy, with its Application to the Arts.* A work designed for instruction in the National Lyceums. By **ALEXANDER BRONGNIART**, Mineral Engineer, and Director of the Imperial Manufacture of Porcelain at Sevres. Two Vols. 8vo. pp. 1020. with 16 Plates. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 1s.

No department of physical science has of late years been more cultivated than Mineralogy. It embraces a wide circle of votaries among the curious and wealthy classes of the community ; and it is intimately connected with that passion for travelling, and that laudable desire of exploring the productions of nature, which form distinguishing features of the present age. This fashionable study, however, is attended by peculiar difficulties, but which seem only to inflame the ardour of research. Minerals are not stamped with those obvious characters which discriminate the subjects of the animal and vegetable kingdoms : they exhibit infinite gradations of aspect ; and under the same external appearance, they often conceal a total difference of structure, and of their general properties. To designate the constitution of these substances is therefore no easy task. Three distinct methods have been attempted for the classification of minerals ; the first, founded on the aggregate of their external characters ; the second, on the examination of their structure ; and the third, on the result of their chemical and physical properties. We shall bestow a few words on the merits of each of these modes.

1. External Characters.—The inspection of their obvious qualities is the readiest and the most natural way of distinguishing minerals ; and were it susceptible of tolerable accuracy, it ought assuredly to be preferred to every other mode of proceeding. In the hands of the celebrated *Werner*, it has been greatly improved, and has at last attained to a surprising degree of precision. Since the publication of his tract on external characters, in 1774, a new school of mineralogy has arisen in Germany, and is rapidly extending its influence over Europe. The professor of Freyberg has been extremely sparing of his writings : but that omission is amply supplied by the zeal of his pupils ; who, with a truly German enthusiasm, are labouring to spread their master's fame, and to gain proselytes to his doctrines, in every quarter. The *Wernerian* system is evidently the production of a man of sense and observation, deeply skilled in the practical operations of mining, and well acquainted with the subterranean geography of that district of Upper Saxony in which he resides ; but in the reports of his disciples, we look in vain

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for

for correct and enlarged views; and some of his geological hypotheses, advanced under the imposing name of facts, appear completely at variance with the best established principles of philosophy and chemical science. It betrays the hard lineaments of its German origin;—an excessive subdivision;—a profusion of new and uncouth terms;—and a repulsive air of dogmatism, which pervades its whole structure. *Werner*, moreover, is not always faithful to the principles on which the system is founded: in some cases he seems to disregard the aspect of mineral substances, and to frame his arrangement and nomenclature on the relative position of the strata in which they occur; and while he again refers to those facts in treating of their geognostic habits, he may be suspected of inadvertently committing that capital error in logic—reasoning in a circle.

2. *Interior Structure*.—The mechanical analysis of minerals has been wonderfully improved within these few years. *Linné* has the credit of being the first to ground the classification of those bodies on their crystalline forms. The plan was well conceived: but he possessed not sufficient knowledge to carry it into successful execution. The celebrated *Bergman* shewed, by an application of geometry, how the same form would, by certain easy radical modifications, produce a considerable variety of crystals. The subject was afterward extensively pursued by *Romé Delisle*, who established the important principle that, of each substance, however diversified may be the appearances which it progressively exhibits, the angles of the original crystal continue perfectly invariable. It was reserved, however, for the ingenuity of *Hatty* to collect these scattered rays, and to erect a system of crystallography which is at once beautiful and comprehensive. By assuming certain simple laws of accretion, he derives from each primitive nucleus all the possible variety of external forms; and these deductions are found to include not only the crystals already known, but also such as the activity of modern research is continually bringing to light. The discoveries of *Hatty* are therefore of high importance, and have in some instances anticipated the results of the most refined chemical analysis: but the attempt seems overstrained, to make them the groundwork of any practicable method of classification. The principles themselves admit of considerable latitude of application; and it is only a very small proportion of mineral bodies that exhibit crystals so prominent and well defined as to be capable of accurate mensuration.

3. *Elementary composition*.—If an easy mode were devised for discovering the constitution of mineral bodies, it would undoubtedly

undoubtedly furnish the best and the surest data for a scientific arrangement. The art of chemical analysis has advanced in a wonderful degree: but the procedure is become proportionally more elaborate, and requires far greater skill and resources to direct it with success. As it involves also the destruction of part or the whole of the specimen, we can only resort to it in some extreme cases. A less perfect sort of trial, however, is used with the greatest advantage. The body to be examined is subjected to the action of acids, or exposed in contact with certain fluxes to the flame of a blow-pipe. The more obvious physical properties are likewise employed to distinguish minerals;—the density of the substance, its hardness, and its magnetical or electrical affections:—but in this kind of research much yet remains to be done. Instruments might be contrived of a simple form to measure the adhesion of earthy bodies to fluids, their absorbent powers, their capacity for heat, and their disposition to conduct it and to transmit the electric influence. By such means, we might gain an intimate acquaintance with the nature of most substances, without having recourse to the tedious and intricate process of decomposition.

None of these modes of distinguishing minerals appears therefore to be singly sufficient; and it requires the re-union of all the three, to form the basis of a complete arrangement: but to select and combine them skillfully is an arduous task. The performance now before us answers our most sanguine expectations. It is decidedly superior, in all the essential points, to any treatise of mineralogy that we have yet seen; and it contains a vast mass of knowledge, disposed in luminous order and condensed into a narrow compass. The author has not confined himself to a bare description of minerals: but he has given variety and much interest to his work by noticing their application to the arts, by sketching their natural history, or by indicating the geological theories which have been proposed to explain their formation. The concise view of mining and metallurgy, subjoined to the treatise, as it includes the most recent improvements in those branches, will be deemed valuable; and we must applaud the judgment and impartiality which the author has everywhere shewn.

In the Introduction, M. BRONGNIART takes a rapid survey of the nature, the growth, and the structure of minerals, embracing the occasion to give a neat abstract of *Hallé's* system. He then reviews the physical and chemical characters which are offered to examination, and proceeds to make some very judicious remarks on the divisions and nomenclature that should be used in mineralogy. In describing the process of
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crystallization,

crystallization, he observes that the action of light seems to favour this process.—that the points and angles are always the first formed and the first to dissolve away,—and that the crystals extend themselves more in a horizontal than a vertical direction, and acquire a much faster growth at the bottom of a tall vessel than near the surface. This curious fact will admit of a simple explanation; for the integrant molecules, being denser than the solution from which they are separated, fall down, and augment by their continual accretion the expanding crystals below.

Werner, who certainly has studied the constitution of rocks more carefully than any preceding mineralogist, has distinguished the crust of our globe into five coats, the primitive, the transitive, the stratified, the alluvial, and the volcanic rocks. *M. BRONGNIART* seems to have in part adopted that division: but he joins together the transitive and stratified rocks, under the general appellation of *beds of sediment, or secondary tracts*.

In the distribution of his work, the author follows an arrangement which is sufficiently perspicuous. He divides the mineral products into five classes:—1. The combinations of oxygen with substances that are not metallic; 2. The Salts that have not a metallic base; 3. The Stones; 4. The Combustibles; and 5. The Metals. These classes again he distributes into orders, genera, and species. The salts form two orders;—those with an alkaline, and those with an earthy base. The stones are ranged under three orders;—the hard, the unctuous, and the argilloid;—and the metals are distinguished as usual into the brittle and the ductile. The numerous subdivisions are exhibited in a convenient synoptic table, which is prefixed to the body of the treatise.

It may seem rather strange to find air and water referred to the mineral kindom: but Aristotle had before set the example, in his book on *Meteors*. Oxygen enters into the composition of both; and both of them have the most extensive influence on the changes which take place on the surface of the globe. Mineral springs issue, for the most part, from the secondary rocks; especially from lime-stone and beds of schist, that contain sulphurated iron. The volcanic tracts also give rise to various kinds of fountains. It may be presumed that such waters derive their peculiar qualities from the substances through which they percolate: yet instances are not wanting of hot springs that flow from rocks even of granite or gneiss. In these cases, the water is not impregnated with saline matter: but how it derives its heat, unless from the decomposition of the materials below the solid rock, we can form no conception. Whatever be the cause, it is of the most permanent

permanent nature; since the temperature of a spring continues unvaried for many revolving centuries.

Sulphuric acid exerts such powerful attractions, that it very seldom occurs in a state uncombined. It has been lately discovered in the neighbourhood of Sienna, forming concretions like cauliflowers, in the cavities of a small volcanic hill called Zoccolino: where it is formed from the decomposition of sulphur, and is rendered solid by the sulphureous acid which it dissolves. The sulphuric acid is also found in the caverns of the island of Milo, in those near Aix in Savoy, and in several grottoes of Mount *Ætna*.

The acid of Borax was first observed in the *lagoni*, or little lakes of Tuscany, in the form of stalactites, white, and of a soapy feel. It was afterward found abundantly on the margin of a hot spring at Sasso, near Sienna.

Sal ammoniac, or the muriate of ammonia, was formerly brought from Egypt, where it is procured by distilling the soot collected through the country; the fuel generally used there being the dung of camels and other animals which feed on the salt herbage of those arid plains. This useful article is now manufactured in various parts of Europe. In Belgium the soot is mixed with coals and clay, and moistened with a strong brine: this paste is then made up into small bricks, which are burnt in a furnace of a particular construction; and the soot now formed is put in matrasses, and finally urged to sublimation.

The sulphate of Soda is of more frequent occurrence than was supposed; being found in Austria, in Hungary, in Switzerland, and in Spain. In the lakes of Siberia, also, it is very common; and, as it parts from its solution when cold, the apothecaries of Oremberg are accustomed every autumn to make a provision of that salt from its deposits at the bottom of a lake near the Tobol.

The geognostic history of common Salt forms an interesting subject, which M. BRONGNIART treats with curious and ample detail: but we can notice only a few general points.

Mineral salt occurs in solid masses, and is then termed *sal gemma*; or in springs which flow more or less copiously from saline beds. These springs are always accompanied by argil, and often contain other neutral salts likewise, particularly the sulphates of lime and of soda. Salt is never found in the primitive rocks, either in a solid or a liquid form: but it occurs in the stratified or alluvial districts, and generally near the foot of the lofty primordial chains. Gypsum, or the sulphate of lime, almost constantly accompanies it. The blocks of salt appear in layers which alternate with those of grey or red clay, and are some-

times intermixed with that substance. The beds of clay themselves generally rest on gypsum, and are covered by compact bituminous limestone; and these strata inclose the wrecks of organized bodies, elephants' bones, charred wood, fossil shells, petroleum, and not unfrequently large pieces of sulphur.

Alum, the combination of sulphuric acid with aluminous earth, has been discovered to be a triple salt, and to require potash or ammonia for its crystallization. It sometimes occurs efflorescent in volcanic grottos, and is then called *plumose alum*, but is most generally the production of art. It is procured from certain kinds of friable lava, or of argillaceous schist, by calcining and lixiviating the mass. Gypsum, sulphate of iron, and other extraneous salts, are made to part from the liquor, and an alkaline ley is then added: but this process may be omitted in the case in which the mineral is roasted with pit-coal, which seems to supply the necessary portion of ammonia.—M. BRONGNIART relates, as a matter in course, that our bakers are habituated to use alum for the purpose of rendering their bread light and white: but he seems not to be aware that such a pernicious ingredient is severely proscribed by law.

Sulphate of Magnesia appears efflorescent on the surface of some stones, being formed by the operation of a double affinity. Thus the carbonate of magnesia contained in gypsum is decomposed, the sulphuric acid interchanging with the carbonic its calcareous base; while the presence of the oxyd of iron visibly favours the new combination.

Gypsum, or the sulphate of lime, betrays a confused crystallization, and is evidently posterior in its formation to the primitive rocks. It may be distinguished into three principal kinds, according to the order of time. The first and most ancient is that which occurs on the Alpine heights: it contains no organic remains, is of a pure white, and has a brilliant and granular texture. The gypsum of the second formation is found generally in limestone countries, on the declivity or near the foot of the hills: it has a fine close grain; its texture is often fibrous; and it appears in thin contorted layers, mixed with coloured clays: but, though accompanied by salt rocks and stinkstein, this gypsum shews no traces of organic bodies. That of the third order occurs in the plains, or on the slopes of the secondary hills; where it forms thick continuous banks, either horizontal or gently inclined. Its grain is coarse, though crystalline; it is usually blended with clay, marl, or limestone; and it often contains fragments of quadrupeds, birds, shells, and even vegetables. The beds, too, of argillaceous or calcareous marl, which divide it, inclose likewise the traces of organic bodies,

Bodies. The quarries of plaster at Montmartre, on the north side of Paris, present objects that are extremely interesting to the naturalist. The gypsum of a yellowish colour there forms a conical hill, about 400 feet above the level of the sea, and rests incumbent on extensive horizontal beds of limestone, of a coarse texture, and abounding with shells. Near the summit, a friable sandstone contains impressions of shells of the genus *cerithium*; and below this occur the beds of marl, at first sandy, and then calcareous or argillaceous, and foliated. Here five or six very thin banks of shells are found, in a high state of preservation. At first, a shell similar to our oyster is discovered; next, those of the genera *cardita*, *venus*, *tellina*, and *cerithium*; with some traces of fishes; and still nearer to the gypsum are the fossil trunks of the palm-tree. The plaster itself is divided into three principal masses, separated by beds of marl; but it is the first mass chiefly that contains the bones of tortoises, fish, quadrupeds, and birds, which have been so accurately described by the celebrated *Cuvier*.

The finer sorts of compact gypsum being semi-transparent, and capable of receiving a polish, are known to the statuaries under the name of alabaster. At Florence, the gypseous alabaster of Volterra is manufactured into elegant vases, in which a lamp being placed sheds a delicate softened lustre. The *phengites* of the ancients was probably the same stone, and was employed by them in their temples to diffuse "a dim religious light."

Some kinds of limestone are of a nature so compact as to resist the penetration of acids, and to permit only a slow and feeble effervescence. These hold but a portion of magnesian earth, and shew no traces of quartz; yet they are often so hard as to be capable of striking fire from steel, and of scratching flint-glass with their angles. The scintillation with steel, commonly regarded as characteristic, affords therefore no certain indication of the silicious order of stones.

M. BRONGNIART's article respecting Statuary Marbles possesses considerable interest. The most celebrated marbles among the ancients were the *Parian*, or *Lychnites*,—the *Penthe-lic*, or *Cipolin*,—and that of *Carrara*, or *Luni*. The first was the most esteemed; having, with rather a coarse grain, a certain degree of transparency. It was found in the isles of Paros, Naxos, and Tenos; and the statue of the Venus de Medicis appears to be formed of it. The marble which is now termed *Cipolin* was procured from the quarries of Mount Pentheles near Athens, and was generally striped with greyish micaceous veins:—of this was made the celebrated *Torsus* of Hercules. The Carrara marble, brought from the gulf of Genoa, is whiter than the Parian, and seems to have been preferred in the

the sequel by ancient statuaries. It has a polyhedral rather than a saccharine fracture, and *Dalman* thinks that the famous Apollo Belvidere was chisled out of it.

A series of operations is requisite for the polishing of marbles. They are first ground wet with pounded red biscuit-ware, and reddish argillaceous sand: they are then rubbed hard with a block of lead, sprinkled beneath with fresh emery-dust, kept moistened with water; and, lastly, they are smoothed by being rubbed strongly with lead filings mixed with a third part of alum; the finish being given by an application of putty. Instead of putty, however, calcined sheep's bones, mixed up with the due proportion of alum, are used for polishing white marbles.

The process of the burning of Lime has not been accurately studied. From ordinary principles, we might expect that the carbonic gas would be discharged almost as soon as its basis was brought up to the requisite degree of heat; and such is nearly the case in the vaporization of water and other liquids, which would be instantaneous but for the great expenditure of heat that it occasions: but the calcination of limestone requires a very slow and lengthened process. By communicating an expansive force to the latent gas, the application of fire enables it to surmount the attraction of its basis. The external crust of the stone is first denuded of its gas; in that state, it draws, by its superior attraction, a new supply from the interior mass; and the gaseous ingredient is thus transferred from the centre of the mass, by a series of successive combinations, till it finally makes its escape from the surface. The presence of moisture greatly promotes the operation; the vapour attracting strongly the gas, while it communicates, at the same time, its prodigious distending force. It is apparently for this reason that wet stones are most easily converted into lime, and that it is even found advantageous, in some cases, to sprinkle them with water.

Derbyshire spar, or lime united to the fluoric acid, has not been observed to contain organic remains: but *Morichini* has recently discovered it in the enamel of fossil elephants' teeth, in which it is combined with phosphate of lime and gelatine.

Having discussed the saline bodies, M. BRONGNIART proceeds, under the third class, to consider Stones properly so called. Some of them are remarkably sonorous, and are therefore employed by the Chinese to form a kind of musical instruments. They consist chiefly of agates, trapps, and black marbles. Certain stones of a coarse granular texture are found to possess a singular degree of flexibility; which they seem to acquire from long exposure to the impression of the weather, or even from the artificial process effected by the continual action of a slow and gentle fire. The lapidous cement being dissolved,

solved, or the moisture expelled from the interstices of the stone, the grosser particles have then room for those minute internal displacements, which flexure of necessity requires.

Of the hard stones. Quartz properly takes the lead. It never alone forms either mountains or even large beds, but occurs disseminated among the primitive rocks, or running through them in extensive veins; and, sometimes, these veins contain cavities, the sides of which are lined with elegant crystals. Quartz occurs also, but in very small quantities, in the stratified districts, and occasionally forms thin seams, or narrow veins in the schistose mountains. It is often transported to great distances in rounded or angular fragments, and thus composes the principal collections of sand. It also appears frequently penetrated by other mineral substances. The sulphate of barytes gives it a milky hue, and actinolite communicates to it a soft green colour. It is sometimes transpierced by acicular crystals of titanium and antimony; and, when these needles are eroded, the quartz presents a honey-comb appearance.—Felspar, garnet, mica, fluor, tin, specular iron, and sulphurated arsenic, are often inclosed in masses of quartz; chlorite gives it an opaque deep green; and asbestos communicates iridescent tints and a fibrous texture. Silver and native gold, in plates or fine twisted filaments, divide the siliceous crystals. Quartz is found sometimes to contain air-bubbles, or drops of bitumen, of anthracite, or even of water; a fact which seems utterly to preclude the supposition of its being formed by the action of fire. This argument is farther corroborated by the circumstance that, though quartz itself never betrays the vestiges of organized bodies, it often occurs filling up the tissue of fossil wood.

Hydrophane is a species of opal, or chalcedony, which, as its name implies, becomes transparent on being soaked in water. At the same time that it imbibes the water, it disengages bubbles of air, for which it seems to have less attraction: but the transparency is evidently not produced by the mere repletion of its pores; since wet sand still remains opaque. A real chemical action takes place, and a new combination results; in which, however, the character of the basis predominates. The transparency communicated by immersion to the hydrophane is perfectly analogous to the effect of wetting linen or bibulous paper; which may be shewn to be always accompanied by a contraction of volume and an extrication of heat. The water, by its union, gives a different arrangement to constituent particles, and communicates, in some degree, its own translucid quality.

To explain the origin of Flint is one of the most difficult problems in geology. It occurs in lumps, most irregular and fantastic, forming interrupted but parallel beds in the chalk hills. It appears to shade away into its calcareous matrix; and, if exposed to the weather, it soon becomes covered with a white crust. The strange opinion, however, that chalk is really transmuted into the substance of flint cannot be entertained for a moment. The alteration which flint undergoes, from the impression of air and humidity, is owing evidently to the abstraction of some fugitive, perhaps glutinous, principle; and the action of fire produces a similar effect, converting the flint into a white friable substance. The prevailing hypothesis among geologists, at present, is that flint is formed by infiltration; an idea which seems liable to formidable objections; though some closer examination may perhaps obviate them. We may suppose that the place of the flint was formerly occupied by beds of marine animals,—the *mollusca*, the *testacea*, and the *zoophytes*,—and that their substance attracted and fixed the silicious matter which percolated from above: a theory which would account for the profusion of water contained in the body of flint, and for those impressions of shells, madrepores, and urchins, which it generally bears.

Jasper is distinguished from flint chiefly by its opacity. Many geologists attribute its formation to the filtering of silicious matter through beds of ferruginous clay; and it has been asserted by some observers to contain fossil shells, and traces of marine plants.

Obsidian has a vitreous appearance, much resembling enamel. It is used by the natives of Mexico and Peru for making ornaments and mirrors; and it was employed by the same people to form cutting instruments, such as knives, and even razors, of rude manufacture, but executed with astonishing rapidity.

The term *petrosilex* having received various acceptations among mineralogists, M. BRONGNIART has preferred to adopt the characters assigned to it by *Dolomieu*. Its fracture resembles wax, and it has the appearance of agate, only that it is fusible in the flame of a blow-pipe. It has all the properties of felspar, and decomposes likewise into porcelain clay; so that it bears the same relation to felspar that flint bears to quartz. We must observe, however, that felspar seems to derive its fusibility from the portion of potash with which it is generally combined; for the fine clay, or *kaolin*, arising from its decomposition, is found to be no longer capable of fusion.

Lazulite

Lazulite is akin to felspar, and appears from the recent experiments of *Clement* and *Desormes* to contain almost the fourth part of its weight of soda, with a small admixture of sulphur. From this analysis, an elegant explanation is given of the intricate and very laborious process of extracting, from its refractory basis, the famous *ultramarine* used by painters.

M. BRONGNIART states fairly the opposite arguments advanced by the Neptunists and the Plutonists, with regard to the formation of Basalt. Much of this celebrated dispute is no doubt verbal, and several of the difficulties that have been urged are explicable on either hypothesis: but the probabilities seem to incline to the side of the Neptunists. Basalt differs from the compact lavas, in yielding water by distillation; and it is observed to pass by imperceptible shades into other rocks, which are acknowledged to have an aqueous origin.

Of the unctuous stones, *serpentine* is the most remarkable. It is akin to mica, and contains also a large proportion of magnesian earth. The *lapis ollaris* is quite soft when it comes out of the quarry, and is capable of being turned in the lathe, and formed into vessels for culinary purposes. In Upper Egypt it is so employed, under the name of the *stone of Baram*; and among the people of the Valais and the Grisons, it has been used from time immemorial for pots in cooking. The ancients were perfectly acquainted with its distinguishing properties.

Steatite is another of the unctuous tribe. It is used in the manufacture of Worcestershire china, and serves the Arabians in their baths instead of soap. Some wretched savages are known to eat this substance, with the view of blunting the painful sensations of hunger. Such is the practice of the natives of New Caledonia, and of the inhabitants of the shores of the Oroonoko. The negroes, also, who inhabit the small islands in the mouth of the Senegal, mix their rice with a white steatite, which is soft and greasy, like butter; and these miserable people do not appear to suffer any inconvenience from indulging such a depraved appetite.

Mica, distinguished by its brilliant and flaky composition, is also classed with the unctuous stones. Its formation seems to have been coeval with that of the primitive rocks: but a substance so light and thin was easily transported; and it is now found abundantly dispersed in the secondary and alluvial beds. No mineral is indeed of such frequent occurrence, or so equally disseminated over the surface of the globe.

Of

Of the argilloid order, Clay itself holds the foremost rank. It owes its peculiar qualities to the large portion of alumine which enters into its composition. *Kaolin* is the most noted species, being used by the Chinese in the manufacture of porcelain: it is a white friable substance, containing nearly equal parts of silex and alumine; it does not easily mix with water; and it resists the action of the strongest fire. Kaolin is evidently formed by the decomposition of felspar, or of the granitic rocks in which that mineral is a principal ingredient; and it generally betrays its origin by the minute scales of mica which are found dispersed through its mass. It is the same substance with the *rotten granite* or *growan* of Cornwall, which is employed in our potteries. The kaolin lately discovered near Bayonne still retains the lamellar structure of the felspar.

In treating of clays, the author is led to give an account of the manufacture of earthen-ware, which in this country has been carried to such a high state of perfection by the ingenuity and perseverance of the late Mr. Wedgwood; and he describes, in a concise but distinct manner, the successive operations which that elegant material undergoes before it receives its finishing touch.

Marls are only variously proportioned mixtures of clay with calcareous earth. Those of a compact form, and in which the calcareous ingredient predominates, appear to be the most antient, for they contain abundantly the fossil remains of animals, the bones of quadrupeds and fishes, and the impressions of vegetables:—but the argillaceous marls are found to inclose fragments of animals that are more analogous to the present race of inhabitants of our globe.

We have extended our observations already so far, that we feel ourselves obliged to curtail the remarks which we had designed to offer on the two remaining classes of mineral bodies. The article concerning *Coal* is ably compiled. According to M. BRONGNIART, this combustible substance occurs only in the intermediate strata, and is found neither in the primitive rocks nor in the alluvial beds. It exhibits three principal formations. *First*, in seams alternating with these six distinct layers:—1. coarse grit-stone; 2. schist, bearing on its plates the impressions of fish, of ferns, and graniferous vegetables; 3. beds of indurated marl; 4. a sort of secondary argillaceous porphyry, containing petrified trees; 5. argillaceous iron-stone; and 6. gravel imbedded in ferruginous sand. The *second* formation occurs in basalt, through which it stretches in very thick and extensive beds. Coal of the *third* epoch pre-
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sents itself in the deep horizontal fields of a compact lime-stone, which often contains fossil shells.

Respecting the origin of Coal, much geological discussion has been excited. The most ingenious supposition is, that it arose from the decomposition of the soft parts of the vast store of submerged and extinguished animals, whose fossil bones are now so widely scattered: an idea which is countenanced by the late discovery of the conversion of muscular fibre into a fatty substance, by long exposure to the action of humidity. Like every geological hypothesis, however, this supposition is liable to powerful objections. Yet careful observations intitle us to conclude that coal was nearly contemporaneous with organized bodies,—that it was once, perfectly liquid and homogeneous,—and that the cause of its production must have acted at repeated intervals, but without violence or convulsion.

Of the Bitumens, naphtha is the highest; and it is very fluid, and extremely inflammable. A spring of naphtha, we are informed, was discovered in 1802, near the village of Amiano, on the confines of the territory of Genoa; which flows so copiously as to furnish a supply sufficient for lighting up the streets of that commercial city.

It is well known that Sulphur increases the inflammability of the substances with which it is joined; and on that account it is employed in the composition of gunpowder. In some cases, it can be made to take fire by mere percussion. The inhabitants of Oonalashka are accustomed to rub pieces of quartz with sulphur; and, striking the stones violently against each other, they catch the inflamed particles among dried leaves.

Nickel was long considered as a dingy semi-metal: but, in its pure state, it is now found to be white like silver, and almost as malleable. It is not apt to tarnish, is very tough, and when hammered it has a specific gravity of about 8.7. Together with cobalt, it is capable of magnetic virtue, though in a degree still inferior to that of iron.

Most of the ores of Copper occur in the stratified tracts. It has the appearance of being newer than other metals, since it cuts most of their veins, and is itself only cut by hæmatite and magnetic iron. The azure and green copper ores are found, however, in every sort of matrix; even in sand and bituminous schist. It has been generally believed that the *turquoise*, so named after the country from which it comes, owed its colour to the impregnation of malachite, or the green carbonate of copper: but that opinion is confuted by the recent analysis of *Bouillon-la-Grange*, which proves that the turquoise is

is only a compound of bone with the phosphate of iron. This mineralized body is greatly prized throughout the East for sword-handles and other ornaments.

The ores of silver occur chiefly in the older stratified districts; very rarely in granite, but generally in the micaceous rocks, in hornblende, compact lime, and in certain kinds of schist. The muriate of silver would seem to be of the newest formation; for it is accompanied by organic remains, and appears always in the upper part of the veins.

Gold is one of the oldest metals, and the most generally though sparingly disseminated. It is found in granite, gneiss, and other micaceous rocks; also in hornblende, primitive trap, and compact limestone. It occurs perhaps more frequently in the alluvial tracts, intermixed in small particles with silicious, argillaceous, or ferruginous sand; in which form it is often collected in the bottoms and the bendings of rivers. Various facts concur, however, to prove that it is only abraded from the channel by the swell and rapidity of the current, and is not carried down, as has been often supposed, from the distant mountains. This auriferous sand is black or red, and consequently ferruginous. *Napione* has hence conjectured that the gold thus obtained proceeds from the decomposition of auriferous pyrites.

The remainder of the second volume, extending through about 120 pages, treats of the working of mines, of metallurgy, and the direct application of the metals: but having already transgressed our limits, we must here content ourselves with taking a very cursory glance.—The treatment of silver ores at Freyberg, by the process of amalgamation, is one of the most ingenious and scientific. The ore is very poor, not containing above one fourth *per cent.* of silver, joined to a large proportion of sulphur, with an admixture of some other metals. It is first roasted in a reverberatory furnace, with 10 *per cent.* of common salt. The sulphuric acid, now produced, decomposes the salt, and forms sulphate of soda and metallic sulphates; while the muriatic acid thus liberated combines with the silver. This roasted ore is then reduced to a fine meal; to every 100 parts of which are added 50 of mercury, 30 of water, and 6 of small iron-plates. The casks into which this mixture is put are turned round by machinery for 16 or 18 hours, till the mass has become intimately blended. The iron decomposes the muriate of silver; and this metal, joining the mercury, forms a solid amalgam which is found to contain one seventh of its weight of silver. The mercury is again separated from its amalgam by sublimation, and the silver is left nearly pure. The use of the water is to dissolve the saline compounds as
fast

fast as they are formed, and thus to multiply the contact and facilitate the action of the mixture. Sulphate of soda yields some profit, being employed as a flux by the glass-makers.

It appears from the best conjectural estimates, that the quantities of precious metal annually introduced into the commerce of Europe, between the years 1790 and 1802, amounts to about 48,000 pounds weight of gold, and 2,500,000 of silver,—corresponding in value respectively to upwards of two millions and eight millions sterling. Of this accumulation, the old world supplies between a third and a fourth part of the gold, but only the twelfth part of the silver; the rest is brought from the American continent. Silver is therefore fifty times more abundant in the market than gold; and yet it maintains nearly its relative value, being only fifteen times cheaper by weight than gold. This fact is to be explained by the great waste of silver in coinage and various manufactures, together with the vast annual drain to China in return for teas and other articles.

We must not extend these notices any farther, but shall refer our curious readers to the work itself; which, we are persuaded, will amply repay their time and attention. A book, however, containing such multifarious information, is fitter perhaps for consultation than for a continued perusal: but it is admirably calculated on the whole for promoting the study of mineralogy; and the accuracy of the details is guaranteed by a constant reference to the original authorities: a very laudable and useful practice, but to which the French writers have very seldom submitted. The omissions in the treatise are few, we believe, and unimportant: but we have observed one which we shall specify. In describing the lead-mines of Great Britain, M. BRONGNIART has entirely forgotten those of Lead-hills in Scotland, on the confines of Dumfries-shire and Lanarkshire; which have long been deservedly regarded as objects of national importance.

ART. LX. *Sainclair, ou la Victime des Sciences & des Arts, &c.*
Sainclair, or the Victim of the Arts and Sciences, a Novel. By
Madame DE GENLIS. 12mo. pp. 131. Paris, and re-printed
for Dulau and Co. London. 1808.

As we believe it to be a circumstance without parallel, that we should be required in a single number to pay our compliments to a lady for three works produced within a very limited period; so also it gives us no common pleasure that

some of our suggestions will be more courteous than those which we have lately offered to the same fair writer. We are willing to hope that the multitude of valuable contributions hitherto made by MADAME DE GENLIS to the amusement and instruction of the world, instead of announcing a speedy termination to her labors, may be taken as an earnest of farther and long continued exertions; which, in our opinion, would be most likely to insure a complete success, if they were employed in representing the more ordinary characters and events of domestic life. Her mind is of much too elevated an order to be absorbed, like a gaping populace, in contemplating the idle magnificence of court pageantry; while on the other hand it does not appear to us to possess that high, romantic, and chivalrous turn, which inspires with sentiment while it invests with probability the most extraordinary incidents and adventures scarcely credible. The species of composition, for which she is naturally best adapted, is unquestionably that of the novel, or domestic tale. It is here that her good sense and shrewdness of observation, her knowledge of the world and clear insight into human character, her easy and animated style,—full of lively turns and fortunate expressions,—and her power of affecting the reader's sensibility by pathetic scenes, most eminently qualify her to excel.

The publication before us is a pleasing, useful, and entertaining satire, though it opens with the tragical event of a young man's disappointment in his first love. It did indeed appear that the mutual inclination of the two cousins, *Sainclair* and *Clemence*, had anticipated the views of their relations, who were anxious for their marriage, and every thing flattered their hopes of future happiness. One fatal ground of dissension, however, existed between them: the modest and cultivated mind of *Sainclair* valued letters and philosophy only as they promote the comfort of society, and the pleasure of conversation; while the more aspiring imagination of the lady considered them as the means of advancing her individual reputation, and obtaining the enviable notoriety of a literary character. His blindness to her talents for poetry and music, her brother's botanical skill and his proficiency on the violin, her mother's fragments translated from the English, and her father's antiquarian researches, alienated the heart of *Clemence*; who set so high a price on literary glory, that she considered herself as acting a noble and reasonable part, in sacrificing to it her love and her engagements. In a word, she joined her destinies to those of *Versillac*, an ill-bred youth, of repulsive manners, and no attractions; but who had obtain-
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ed the poetical medal at the *Floral Games* lately celebrated in Languedoc; and was a distinguished composer of madrigals and enigmas in the *Almanack of the Muses*.

Sainclair, easily consoled for the loss of a mistress who could sacrifice an early attachment to so preposterous a vanity, visited Paris with a resolution to marry no woman who had arrived at distinction in the eye of the public by her talents and literary acquirements; and nothing can be more amusing than the detail of his various attempts, which are all frustrated by some unlucky discovery of a secret panting after notoriety. We select the portrait of the interesting female whose sensibility first appears to fix his wandering affections.

* *Sainclair*, already tired of Paris, went to pass a fortnight in the country, at the beginning of the spring. He there saw a young widow, who took great interest in him, and succeeded in exciting a corresponding interest in his mind. *Clotilda* (for that was her name) had a sort of celebrity which found favor in the eyes of *Sainclair*. She was quoted in his society as the woman of the greatest sensibility that ever existed. Every thing affected her; the reading of a play produced suffocation; and it was necessary to carry her out of her box from a representation of *Misanthropy* and *Repentance**. Her admiration, of whatever kind it might be, was always expressed by tears. She wept when first she saw the Apollo of Belvidere; she wept if she looked stedfastly at the moon; she wept at hearing instrumental music; and it was related of her, that, being at the opera on the first appearance of *Vestris*, she burst into tears on seeing him dance. People were astonished that, after having suffered so many strong emotions, she should have preserved her health; and that eyes, condemned to eternal tears, far from being extinguished, should still be bright. In a word, she herself described her sensibility, and spoke of her affections, with an eloquence to which a very pretty face gave charms that seduced *Sainclair*. When we are interested, we cease to examine; we contemplate: absurdities become pleasing singularities; and the most gross exaggeration appears but the exaltation of a superior mind. *Clotilda*, having lost her parents in infancy, had for a guardian and governess a half-sister, much more advanced in years than herself; her gratitude towards this sister appeared passionate; and though she neglected her very much, and never saw her, yet she always spoke of her with an ardour and a tenderness that charmed *Sainclair*. *Madame d'Olmeau*, this beloved sister, was now dying of a consumption; and the feeling *Clotilda* shut her eyes so entirely to her situation, that she went into the great world, and to *fêtes* and spectacles with a perfect security. Her friends shuddered to think that she might probably hear, at a ball, of the death of this object of her liveliest affection: yet no one had the cruelty to undeceive her; and

* *Anglicé, the Stranger.*

how indeed was it possible to inform her of the truth? The physicians had pronounced the fatal sentence, and *Clotilda* could not be ignorant of it: but she persuaded herself that the physicians were entirely deceived, and she would trust only her heart and her hopes. —“What a respectable error! and what a dreadful blow she is about to receive, and how will she support it without dying!” These were the remarks made in company respecting *Clotilda*, but was this the opinion of those who said so? I think that it was not. In the world, few persons are duped by affectation, but many pretend to be deceived, in order to preserve agreeable connections, or to make their own candor admired; or perhaps through malignity, for the sake of giving others the opportunity of laughing at absurdity which they do not themselves choose to criticise. *Sainclair* alone was perfectly in earnest in his admiration of *Clotilda*: he had only studied pedantry and pretensions to *bel esprit*; in short, he had passed his life in the country, and he was in love. From these circumstances, *Clotilda*, who in every way attached so much importance to this conquest, might have achieved it at a far less expence.’

At length, it happened that a single visit detected *Clotilda* not only as a pretender to excessive sensibility, but in the still more objectionable character of a candidate for public applause. The very day after she heard of the death of the beloved sister, while assuming the torpid dejection of intolerable anguish, her admirer discovered that she was laboring with her instructor in painting, on a picture which was destined for exhibition in the saloon of the arts. Her conduct was still more unpardonable, as she had the inhumanity of compelling a little boy in her service (*petit jockey*) to sit to her in the severest weather, with a dangerous cold produced by wearing the airy vestments of a *zephyr* or a *low*. The child complained to *Sainclair*; —“No *love* can continue in my mistress’s service.” —“I am of your opinion,” said *Sainclair*, and took leave of his fair deceiver with contempt and anger.

Once more, he is captivated by the beauty, the modesty, and the obscurity of *Albina de Monclar*. It is not, indeed, without some alarm that he discovers her to be possessed of talents and accomplishments; to which, however, he is reconciled by the good sense that could keep them concealed. Their union took place under the most pleasing auspices, three days before the first representation of an opera, the joint production of *Clemence* and her husband. He had written the poetry, she set it to music, and her father prepared it for publication, by composing a preliminary discourse full of erudition, to be placed at the head of the work.—As it is a prescriptive rule in novels and tales, that the happiness of the author’s favorites is never complete unless they witness the mortification of their

adversaries, the newly married couple are present at the theatre, when this unfortunate piece undergoes a most humiliating sentence of condemnation. The whole family are made miserable by this event; each of the contributors to the work charges its failure on the stupidity of his coadjutors; and their expectations of literary renown are converted into the bitterest disappointment.

We hope that much good may be effected by this amusing and playful tale; which manifests that, however the female mind may be adorned and improved by the possession of literary talents, the studious exhibition of them and the love of notoriety are wholly inconsistent with the delicacy, the dignity, the usefulness, and the attraction of the female character. We shall be understood at once when we say that *Sainclair* may be considered as an *Anti-Corinne*.

ART. X. *Le Duc de Lauzun, &c.; i. e. The Duke de Lauzun, a Sequel to the History of the Duchess de la Valliere.* By Madame DE GENLIS. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris. Reprinted for Colburn, London. 1808.

THE public is here presented with another sequel to the *Memoirs of the Duchess de la Valliere**; with whose history, however, that of the *Duke de Lauzun* has no farther connection than that both lived at the same era, and were placed in conspicuous stations in the same court by the favour of an unprincipled monarch, of whose caprice and despotism they both became the victims. Except from these circumstances of resemblance in their destiny, we see not the shadow of a reason for terming the one of these novels a sequel to the other. As well might an English romancer, by employing the word *sequel*, incorporate the life of the Duke of Ormond, or of Lord Chancellor Clarendon, with that of their interesting, benevolent, and frail, but finally repentant contemporary, Mrs. Ellen Gwynn.

We have had frequent occasion to protest against the union of history and fable, especially in regard to recent events, which Madame DE GENLIS has succeeded in rendering popular. Not only is the memory confused and misled, but the mind, habituated to amusement where it ought only to seek instruction, is taught to prefer lively anecdotes to great events; and, among anecdotes, to dwell on those that are interesting and *piquant*, much more than to consider such as are true and important.

* See Rev. Vol. xlv. N. S. p. 211. and Vol. l. p. 500.

No charm is more irresistible to ordinary minds, than the idea of being admitted to the familiarity of princes and courtiers: the splendour of royalty throws a false lustre over actions that are either contemptible or blame-worthy; and even the highest examples of moral and intellectual excellence are deemed valuable in so far as they may accidentally procure the favour of a king, or the smiles of a king's mistress. Thus, though M. *de Lauzun* was honourably distinguished from the herd of friends and rivals who peopled the court of Louis, by his military science and valuable services, as well as by the fearless independence of his mind and the singularity of his humour, he is much less celebrated for his personal qualities than because he held for some time the *situation* of favourite. To this circumstance, in a great degree, but principally to his good fortune in captivating the affections of Mademoiselle *de Montpensier*, the nearest female relative of Louis XIV., he is certainly indebted for the honour of having his fame recorded above a century after his death, in a publication which derives its title from his name. The glory of so brilliant a conquest is as dazzling now as it was at the period of its accomplishment; when the intended nuptials threw the good taste of Madame *de Sevigné* so wholly off its guard, as to draw from her the description that is quoted in the preface to these memoirs.

The illustrious attachment to which we here refer forms the main incident, or more properly the whole story, of the present work. If it was rather calculated to flatter the pride than to promote the happiness of the Duke, if the lady was more than ten years older than her spouse, if her temper was imperious, and her mind fully impressed with the advantage which she derived from the superiority of her rank, these very circumstances added to the glory of a victory, which reduced her to the necessity of suing for the Duke's affections, and throwing herself on his mercy. No human being could fail to be intoxicated by the triumph: but *De Lauzun* resolved not to risk his success, by displaying too much impatience to reap the fruit of it; and he prudently followed the advice of his last paramour, then the King's mistress, Madame *de Montespan*, in feigning a backwardness to meet the advances of Mademoiselle, and a difficulty in believing it possible that so exalted an honour could be seriously intended for him. Who would imagine that such a scheme could fail, at the very moment of execution?—a scheme so wisely laid, so dexterously conducted, so near a prosperous accomplishment! The Duke had, indeed, the less reason for wondering at the King's breach of promise, and refusal to permit the marriage to which he had solemnly given a public sanction, because it was not
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the first time of his suffering from a violation of the royal honour: but it was natural for him to be severely afflicted; and though Louis softened the severity of his prohibition by permitting a private union, this was a most inadequate consolation for the loss of the illustrious rank which he had been authorised to expect, an immediate alliance with the throne, and the dukedom of *Montpensier*. His fair biographer observes that he had taken considerable pains, in private, to prepare himself for the new character which he was on the point of assuming, by practising such manners and deportment as would have suited his elevation. This little trait is no doubt historical, and pleases us the more as it proves the intimate knowledge of human nature possessed by our immortal Shakspeare; for *De Lauzun*, in his provident rehearsal of the airs of state, is an exact counterpart to the ambitious *maitre d'hôtel* in *Twelfth Night*, who fancied himself the fortunate object of his lady's love. "Having been three months married to her, (says Malvolio,) sitting in my state; calling my officers about me, in my branched velvet gown, having come down from a day-bed, where I have left Olivia sleeping,—and then to have the humour of state; and, after a demure travel of regard, telling them I know my place, as I would they should do theirs,—to ask for my kinsman Toby. Seven of my people, with an obedient start, make out for him: I frown the while, and perchance wind up my watch, or play with some rich jewel. Toby approaches, curtsies there to me. I extend my hand to him thus, quenching my familiar smile with an austere regard of controul, saying, Cousin Toby," &c.

Poor Malvolio's confinement as a lunatic, however, bears no proportion to the long imprisonment inflicted on the Duke *de Lauzun* in the fortress of Pignerol, as a punishment for adopting the suggestion of his royal Master, and privately becoming the husband of Mademoiselle. By this dishonourable and atrocious sentence, he was excluded from society for ten years; during which it does not appear that his high-born helpmate took much interest in his situation, since she refused to purchase his liberty, by settling a part of her domains on the natural sons of his Majesty by Madame *de Montespan*. On his liberation, instead of returning to the embraces of a princess who must then have approached the age of fifty, he was directed by some mysterious instinct of love to a lady who had been deeply enamoured of him, and designed for his wife, but whom he had sacrificed to another attachment. This lady was now married, and the Duke was fortunate enough to find her in a sequestered wood, at the moment when she was expecting her husband's arrival from the army. After having indemnified himself, in

her company, for his long seclusion from the world, he took his leave; and, cautiously avoiding all future opportunities of intercourse with the exalted character who had honoured him with her hand, he passed over into England, where he resided many years, in a kind of honourable exile. At the time of our Revolution in 1688, he was the person chosen to escort the Queen in safety from the dangers which appeared to threaten her, to Paris, where she was received with hospitality, and he was again admitted to some portion of the royal favour.

Thus ends this story; which is so deficient in plot and incident, and in every necessary ingredient for forming an interesting novel, that we are convinced it must have been composed with some other view than that of amusing the reader as a narrative of events, whether historical or fictitious. Indeed, the author herself has more than once hinted a desire to polish the present manners of her countrymen, by assimilating them to those of the age of gallantry and refinement to which she has devoted so much of her attention. *Napoleon* may be prompted, as well by policy as vanity, to aim at a competition with the last distinguished character among the monarchs of the Bourbon race; whom he unfortunately too much resembles in the skill and celerity of his military movements, in the vastness of his projects, and in the multitude of his successes. Would to God that we could complete the parallel of circumstances, by pointing out a William, a Marlborough, and an Eugene, opposed to his designs, and watchful of his manœuvres! It is probable, however, that the great French conquerors have not been more intent on gratifying their ambition by the augmentation of territory and the subjugation of states, than on indulging their pride and securing their power by the applause and loyalty of their subjects. The sentiment of absolute devotion to the royal will was never more openly avowed under the reign of a *grand monarque*, than it is at the present moment. The volumes before us are full of *divine right*; and the individual invested with sovereign power on earth is repeatedly extolled as the representative of Heaven!

Persons of all ranks in France appear anxious to outvie each other in expressing such opinions as these: but the republican rudeness, it should seem, has produced a change very unfavourable to refinement and courtesy of *manners*; and the contrast between those which existed in the time of the kings, and their present state, is sketched by Madame DE GENLIS in a style of animated satire. It is certainly probable, from the nature of things, that licentiousness and profligacy prevail at present in France to a great degree: but we wish to call the attention of our readers to the remedy which is proposed for the moral evils

evils that may affect the state of society in that country, by so grave and instructive a writer as Madame DE GENLIS. She recommends a complete recurrence to the system which gave so much elegance and brilliancy to the court of Louis the Fourteenth. What that system was, we shall shortly state, as it is to be collected from the very favourable descriptions of its panegyrist and admirer in the work before us.

The Duke *de Lauzun* first made his appearance at court at the period of the marriage of Louis with an amiable princess of the royal family of Spain; and scarcely did the joyous cavalcade return to Paris, when the King devoted himself to the blooming innocence of the young *de la Valliere*. M. *de Lauzun*, who was soon distinguished by the esteem of his Master, was long in doubt as to which of the beauties who daily surrounded him should be allowed to fix his affection: but the wife of the Prince *de Monaco* at last prevailed over every rival. This lady had a double claim to his regard, which was founded not only on her own personal attractions, but also on the pure and virtuous friendship that subsisted between *de Lauzun* and the Comte *de Guiche*, her brother. (Of this brother, we may observe, *en passant*, that he became the regular and admitted lover of *Madame*, the sister-in-law and mistress of the king, who afterward banished the Count from a motive of jealousy.) A triumph was accomplished, without much difficulty, over the virtue of the Princess *de Monaco*, with whom he maintained a long continued intercourse, which he inexcusably betrayed to the king. Louis, equally ready to improve his advantages in love and in war, contrived to estrange her from his favourite, and succeeded to his place in her affections. The deserted lover, who narrowly escaped the curse of being an eye-witness to her perfidy, soon consoled himself in the arms of the wife of M. *de Montespan*; and if the true test of friendship be the similarity of taste and inclination, (*idem velle atque idem nolle*,) then we must be compelled to acknowledge that the friendship of the King for the courtier was sincere and fervent indeed, since he followed his example a second time, and attached himself to *Madame de Montespan* with as much ardour as he had sought the embraces of *Madame de Monaco*. To his new paramour, the monarch continued for so many years to shew a decided preference, that we may, perhaps, account for his constancy by the absence and confinement of the man, who had tempted him to wander by the varied delicacies that he had pointed out and provided for the gratification of the royal palate; and the want of *Madame de Montespan's* exertions in favour of her old flame may be naturally ascribed to policy, rather than to ingratitude or resentment.

Now

Now let the reader figure to himself a *petit souper*, attended by the following eight persons: the King and the Queen, Monsieur and Madame, the Comte de Guiche and his sister, Madame de Montespan, and the Duke de Lauzun. Let him cast his eye over the foregoing paragraph, observe the various delicate and complex relations in which these several persons stood to one another, reflect on the sensations with which they must all have eyed their neighbours, and admire the extraordinary *refinement of manners* that distinguished the court of Louis! Perhaps we shall only betray our own ignorance of high life, by expressing an opinion that similar habits are not very often to be found among the superior orders in our own country: but we apprehend, for the honour of *English refinement*, that there would be no difficulty in pointing out a parallel to this most polished state of society, in many kitchens and servants' halls, belonging to the noble mansions which adorn the squares of London.

If, then, we may no more relish the acerbities of republican costume than Madame DE GENLIS, yet we cannot take refuge from them in the *haut-ton* (not *high-toned*) morality which she seems to prefer; and we must still fix our affections and our hopes on some happy medium between these two extremes.

ART. XI. *Le Siege de la Rochelle, &c. &c. i. e.* The Siege of La Rochelle, or Misfortune and Conscience, by Madame DE GENLIS. 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris; reprinted in London for Colburn (Price 12s. Sewed.) 1808.

OF this third effusion of Mad. DE GENLIS's fertile pen, in which we expected to find nothing but characters and events notorious in the civil wars that long divided France between Catholics and Hugonots, we were agreeably surprised to discover that the title and about twenty additional pages formed the whole historical portion. Instead of implicating the subject of the story, the title only fixes the epoch at which it is supposed to have taken place; and instead of being introduced to the councils of ministers and party-leaders, and detecting the secrets of camps and cabinets, we are presented with a wild and extravagant romance, which is devoted to the unmerited sufferings, the various adventures, and the extraordinary destiny, of a beautiful and persecuted female.

Clara de Montalban was betrothed to Valmore, a rich and amiable widower of high rank, who had an only son by his former marriage. His estates were so settled, that the greater

greater part of them was destined to belong to the young Julius; whose father was consequently unable to provide, as amply as he would have wished, for his intended second wife. The father of *Clara*, a remorseless mercenary man, whose individual interests were considerably affected by this circumstance, formed the horrid project of murdering the child, and accidentally carried it into effect at such a time and in such a situation, that the suspicion fell entirely on his innocent and unhappy daughter. Without detailing the circumstantial evidence which appeared to amount to proof positive against her, it is enough to state that the judges, before whom she was tried, considered themselves as bound to condemn her to an ignominious death. The monster *Montalban* had the audacity to upbraid her with the crime, though she had the power of bringing it home against him, if filial piety had not prevented her from ransoming herself by the sacrifice of her unworthy father. *Valmore*, who, notwithstanding his sorrow and indignation, continued still to feel a warm affection towards her, and had rescued her from the fury of the populace when the bloody deed was first discovered, succeeded in procuring a pardon for her, on condition of her being confined for life in a penitentiary convent, the asylum of vice and infamy. In this miserable abode, her mind was sustained by a sense of duty, and the exhortations of her confessor; who was alone of all mankind convinced of her innocence and the guilt of *Montalban* though he approved too highly of her resolution of screening her father, to denounce the real criminal.

When the consolations of religion and the force of habit had in some degree reconciled her to this mode of life, she suddenly received a dreadful order to place herself under the protection of her father, who designed to carry her to his lonely castle on the banks of the Rhone; and she had scarcely time to write a short billet to father *Arsene*, when *Montalban's* servant, a phlegmatic German who could speak no French, arrived, and conveyed her to the place of her imprisonment, which she was firmly persuaded would prove also the scene of her speedy death. Her father, she understood, would follow after a short delay. On the second night of her solitary and alarming residence in this dismantled castle,

‘ Exactly at ten o’clock, she distinctly heard a coach enter one of the courts of the castle, and immediately an extraordinary bustle throughout the house,—a climbing of stair-cases, an opening of doors with noise, and a walking in all the galleries. “ Oh ! ” exclaimed *Clara*, “ this time it is not an illusion ; he arrives, it is he.” Half an hour afterward,

Frickmann appeared: he seemed agitated, and nothing could be more striking than a trace of emotion on his naturally cold countenance. He approached *Clara*, took her hand, and dragged her along. *Clara*, frightened, opposed resistance, and *Frickmann* prepared to carry her off by force. Not wishing that a man should seize her by the arm, she determined to follow him. This movement of modesty and dignity restored her strength, for all the springs of the soul have a marvellous connection with one another. She allowed herself to be guided, persuaded that she was led to her death. He made her descend a stair case, and brought her into the great apartment of the castle, that of the master, where he shut her in. Her blood froze in her veins, on finding herself in this apartment, where she ought to have found full protection, and where she every moment expected the appearance of her murderer. *Frickmann* re-entered, and gave her a sign to follow him. "It is done then!" said *Clara*, with a suffocated voice; "O my God, take pity on the murderer and the victim!" She could say no more; the speech expired on her discoloured lips; and, without losing perception, she fell into a state of annihilation and sinking, which prevented her either from walking or supporting herself on her feet. *Frickmann* gave her his arm, or rather carried her, and hurried out of the apartment. After having passed three large rooms, he made her cross a long, narrow, and dark corridor, when they descended a small secret stair-case, and found themselves on a terrace. There *Clara* distinctly heard the howling of the waves of the Rhone, which was greatly agitated at that moment. "At length then I know," she said inwardly (for she could not articulate a word) "I know the manner of death to which I am doomed! I am to be plunged into the stream!"—The moon, concealed by clouds, gave no light. . . . The whistling of the wind, the tumultuous roar of the waters, menacing thunder rolling unceasingly at a distance, and the profound darkness, rendered more striking by the rapid flashes of lightning, all appeared to the eyes of *Clara* in unison with the horror of her thoughts. It seemed to her that all nature revolted at a crime which violated all her laws. Suddenly, *Frickmann* stopped; and in a strong and gloomy voice, he said in German five or six words which were repeated by the echoes of both the shores. A minute afterward, a whistle was three times sounded; and *Frickmann*, opening a door, found himself on the bank. He proceeded about thirty steps, along the shore: then a dazzling flash of lightning discovered to *Clara* a boat close to her, in which was a man alone, wrapped in a mantle that entirely concealed his figure. "'Tis he!" said *Clara* to herself, shuddering. She saw him! she knew him! she already felt the deadly blow; for she believed that she should be poignarded, and then plunged into the river. Her hair rose on her head. *Frickmann* placed her almost dying in the arms of this man, and fled with rapidity. *Clara*, motionless and frozen, voluntarily shut her eyes, that she might not once see the assassin. Her shrinking heart had no longer the power to beat; she ceased to breathe, yet she preserved sensation and consciousness. She remained thus a moment suspended between life and death; when, on a sudden, oh surprise! oh inexpressible extasy!—she felt the arms which supported

ported her gently pressing her ! She heard sighs and groans ! It is no mistake—tears are shed upon her ! O God ! can the murderer of Julius, the unnatural father who so sacrificed his daughter, can he be capable of an emotion of pity ? Does outraged nature reclaim her rights, and will she triumph over so much barbarity ?—

‘ Meanwhile, the clouds which concealed the moon dispersed, and her mild light revived ; the wind was hushed, and the violent tossing of the boat fastened to the bank was moderated ; at this instant, the arms which supported *Clara* lifted her and placed her on a seat, and she found herself opposite to the object of her melancholy fears.—*Clara* raised towards him a sad and timid eye : but scarcely had she perceived him, when she recovered all her faculties and all her sensibility, and, prostrating herself, exclaimed with transport not to be described, “ O my deliverer ! ” She recognised her venerable friend, and embraced the knees of Father *Arsene*. ’

Her worthy Confessor now conveyed her to a place of safety at a farm-house near Rochelle, which became the head quarters of the General who commanded the besieging army. This General was *Valmore* ; who, though he could not see her face, which she had the precaution to keep constantly veiled, was reminded of his former love and sorrow by her figure and appearance. He passed the night in a room divided from her only by a thin partition ; and she had the melancholy satisfaction of hearing him express those feelings of an unextinguished affection, which she could never be permitted to return, while labouring under the load of infamy that had been heaped on her. Concealment becoming daily more difficult ; she prevailed on Father *Arsene* to change her retreat for the house of an aged widow in the capital of one of the German electorates ; where she was accidentally introduced to the Elector's daughter, and entirely won her confidence and affection. This amiable princess, whose spirits were depressed by a secret affliction, opened her whole heart to her young favorite, and related her melancholy history. She had been betrayed into a private marriage with one of her father's ministers, who treated her with coldness, and appeared to have lost all affection for her.—Here, the suspense of the story is in a great measure destroyed, for the reader sees at once that *Clara* is the daughter of the princess. Her father, *Rosenberg*, who at an early age had intrusted her to *Montalban*, returned about this time ; and having been convinced that she was guilty of the murder, he threatened her with immediate detection and exposure unless she left the place. She returned, therefore, to her refuge near Rochelle ; where, after various adventures, which are not always of the most probable kind, her innocence was manifested to the world ; *Montalban* died confessing his guilt ; *Valmore* was united to his beloved
Clara ;

Clara; and *Rosenberg* (who had very fortunately brought some German auxiliaries to the assistance of the besieged Hugonots) blessed their auspicious marriage.

This story, though very striking in particular scenes, is tedious and unequal; and it is eked out by a number of episodical narratives which neither assist the progress of the main argument, nor have much intrinsic merit. We would not rashly charge Madame DE G. with descending to the art of book-making: but really the stories of the hermit and the old woman answer no purpose besides that of swelling the work. The latter, however, is introduced by a description of a maritime village, so lively, original, and picturesque, that our readers will probably not be displeased by seeing it translated:

‘The mixture of rustic manners and maritime toils gives to this village a singular and striking aspect. A person might find there in families a wonderful store of knowledge gained from experience and tradition, united to all the prejudices of ignorance and all the simplicity of a country village. The interior of almost all the houses was adorned with the productions of India or the ocean; and they were at once decorations and trophies, which attested long voyages and perilous navigations. There the same hands were often employed in constructing vessels and fabricating ploughs; and the men, divided into two classes, offered, in their mode of life, on the one hand the picture of temerity, boldness, and all the agitations produced by ambition and curiosity; on the other, the affecting image of innocence and peace, the happy fruits of moderation and a tranquil life.’

If we were right in the conjecture which we threw out in the last article, respecting Madame DE GENLIS’ wish to remodel the present *manners* of France by those of former times, we think that the publication before us exhibits a similar approximation to the *ancien regime* on the subject of *religion*. Every opportunity is taken to justify the system of convents and monasteries, and to deny the existence of those enormities with which they have been often charged. The worship of images is mentioned with a degree of awe and veneration, greater, we apprehend, than any judicious Catholic divine of the present day would express on the subject; and the fervent prayers of *Clara* are more than once rewarded by distinct revelations from heaven. We have also too many providential interferences, and too many quotations from the scriptures. A romance is the worst possible vehicle for *onction*;—a word of extensive and mysterious signification, which has been very imperfectly rendered by our common term *Cant*.

ART. XII. *Récherches Arithmétiques*, &c. ; i. e. *Arithmetical Researches*, by M. CH. FR. GAUSS, of Brunswick ; translated (into French) by A. C. M. Poulet Delisle, Professor of Mathematics in the Lyceum of Orleans. 4to. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 1l. 10s. sewed.

OUR English mathematical readers may feel some degree of surprise, when they are told that the *Arithmetical Researches* of M. GAUSS occupy 500 quarto pages : or they will affirm that matters, not properly belonging to arithmetic, are forced within the compass and bounds of the same volume. Indeed, we were almost induced to form this latter opinion, when, as is the preparatory custom of most readers with a new book, turning over the leaves, we found in the latter section a method and plan for geometrically inscribing in a circle, polygons of seventeen and of a greater number of equal sides. — These *arithmetical* researches, however, extend far beyond the ordinary and simple combination of number and number ; and they belong to a species of arithmetic which M. GAUSS has called, and not improperly, *transcendental arithmetic* : that which treats not of the artificial combinations, but of the real and essential properties of number ; which represents numbers by general symbols, and expresses in formulæ of symbols the properties of numbers. That we may not delude our readers with general description, we add that to this arithmetic belong those researches with which *Lagrange* has enriched the algebra of *Euler*, and those researches of *Euler* which are contained in the *New Commentaries* of Petersburg * and in the *Petersburg Acts*.

Buchet de Meziriac and *Fermat*, among modern mathematicians, may be regarded as having laid the foundations of transcendental arithmetic. The many curious results announced by the latter excited the attention of *Euler*, and produced those valuable memoirs which are inserted in the seventh, eighth, and eighteenth volumes of the *New Commentaries* of Petersburg : for *Fermat* gave results, and withheld the investigations, although from his own account, and according to *Euler's* opinion†, he was in possession of them.

* *Novi Comm.* tom. vii. p. 49 ; tom. viii. p. 64. 74. ; tom. xviii. p. 85.

† “ *Magna hujusmodi theorematum copia a Fermatio relictæ habeatur, quorum demonstrationes maximam partem se invenisse affirmavit, quas cum ejus scriptis interiisse in eximium hujus scientiæ detrimentum non parum est dolendum.* ” — *Novi Comm.* viii. 75.

“ *Interim tamen fateri cogor, in hac de natura numerorum theoriâ plurima etiamnum desiderari, atque Fermatii demonstrationes deperditas sine dubio multo profundiores speculationes in se esse complexas.* ” p. 127.

We must now mention a book which partly the obstructed communication with the continent and partly some oversight of our own have prevented us from obtaining, we mean *Legendre's* work on the theory of numbers. From various accounts, and particularly from the testimony of M. GAUSS, that performance was, at the time of its publication, the most complete that had appeared respecting transcendental Arithmetic. Since M. GAUSS is acquainted with its contents, and purposes to exhibit and demonstrate all that is known on its subject, we may presume that M. *Legendre's* theorems are contained in the volume before us. Indeed, we know that the present writer has pushed his researches farther than the French mathematician; since in a late publication *Legendre* mentions a curious proposition relative to the inscription of equilateral polygons in a circle, and for the proof of it refers to these '*Arithmetical Researches*.'—According to his own account, however, M. GAUSS entered on these inquiries unacquainted with the work of *Legendre*, or indeed with the discoveries of any of his predecessors. In 1795, he says, he began to apply himself to these speculations, totally unapprized of what had been done, and debarred of the assistance which might be derived from the writings of modern mathematicians. By chance, he discovered an important arithmetical truth, very curious as an independent fact, but which, there was reason to suspect, was connected with other more important truths. He strenuously laboured to obtain its demonstration, and the principles on which it was founded. Success crowned his labours and wishes; and, attracted by the nature of the inquiry, one truth led to another, so that the greater part of his first four sections was completed before he had seen the labours of other mathematicians on the same subject. Perusing then these productions, he perceived that he had meditated, long and much, in order to find out that which had been already discovered: but, animated with fresh ardour, he pursued his arithmetical researches; and the fruits of them are the 5th, 6th, and 7th sections of the present volume.

'Some time afterward, (says the author) I asked advice concerning a project which I had formed for publishing the result of my investigations; and in compliance with the wishes of several persons, I suffered myself to be persuaded not to suppress my original researches, the more willingly, because no work then existed in which could be found collectively the labours of former mathematicians, that had been scattered through the memoirs of different academies. Add to this, they contained several original researches due to me; some presented in a mode of demonstration peculiar to me; and, finally, they were so connected the one with the other, and

and with those that followed, that it would have been very difficult to explain new matter without resuming other matter from its beginning.

'In this interval appeared an excellent production of a man who had already rendered great services to transcendental arithmetic, (*Essay on the Theory of Numbers*, by Legendre,) in which he not only collected and arranged all that had then appeared on the subject, but added several things of his own invention. As this publication reached me too late, and when the greater part of my book was printed, I have been able to make mention of it only in those places in which the analogy of their contents gave me occasion. The additions contain only some observations which it appeared to me necessary to place in that position; and I trust that his liberality and frankness will cause them to be favorably interpreted.'

M. GAUSS begins with new names and new signs. If a number a divides the difference of b and c , then b and c are said to be congruous (*congruus*) according to a , which is called the modulus. The sign appropriate to this congruity is \equiv , so that, in this new symbolical language,

$$b \equiv c \text{ (modulus } a \text{)}.$$

The numbers b and c are called residues, (*residus*), b the residue of c , and c the residue of b , to the modulus a . For instance, -16 and 9 are congruous to the modulus 5 ; or, symbolically,

$$-16 \equiv 9 \text{ (mod. } 5 \text{)}.$$

Of the infinite variety of residues which a number may have, is one which M. GAUSS calls the *minimum residue*: thus the minimum residue of 81 to a modulus 17 is 13 : for of the progression of the numbers

$$0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, 16,$$

13 is the first number which is congruent to 81 .

Again, to modulus 19 , the minima residues of 32 , 512 , are 13 and 18 , since $\frac{32-13}{19} = 1$ and $\frac{512-18}{19} = 27$

It is clear that we obtain these minima residues, by dividing the number by the modulus; and the positive remainder, less than the modulus, is the minimum residue. Here we cannot forbear expressing our wish that M. GAUSS had not been tempted into the invention of new names and new signs: for, as far as our experience goes, the formation and employment of them in this work have certainly not elucidated the reasonings, and very slightly abridged them. Indeed, the mental labour of the reader (and that is an object which an

author ought to consult) is rendered greater: not because these new names and new signs are difficult of explanation, but because they are *not familiar*: so that, besides the usual impediments of abstruse mathematical processes, the author has contrived to add these artificial impediments; and indeed, in the conduct and explanation of his processes, he seldom consults the ease of his reader.—The signs too, as we have said, scarcely abridge demonstration; and they form the foundation of no great superstructure of notation and of analytical language. *Euler*, without their aid, has treated of the same subjects; and, in our explanation of some of M. GAUSS's researches, we hope to be able to render them more clear and intelligible without the signs, than they appear with them in this book.

In the first section, the author establishes some easy theorems, and applies them to certain known properties of numbers: thus, he demonstrates that an equation, as $x^2 - 8x + 6$, cannot have a rational root: that if a, b, c , &c. be the digits of a number, $a + 10b + 100c + \&c.$ is divisible by 9, if $a + b + c + \&c.$ be divisible.—In the next section, he treats of matters which so much engaged the attention of *Euler*, intitling his section, *Des Residus de Puissances*.—If p be a prime number

and a a number not divisible by p , then $\frac{a^{p-1} - 1}{p}$ is divisible by p :

this, in fact, was *Fermat's* theorem, (p. 163, *Varia Opera*, *Tolosa*, 1679,) and was demonstrated, if we recollect rightly, in three ways by *Euler*: two demonstrations he certainly gave, for they are now before us; and this theorem, with the desire of demonstrating it, having led him into many researches of a similar nature, he printed a memoir in *Novi Comm.* tom. VIII. in which he extended *Fermat's* theorem. M. GAUSS, in his peculiar symbols, thus states it:

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1. \text{ (modulus } p).$$

Of this curious property, our countryman Waring has given two demonstrations in his *Meditationes Algebraicae*, p. 355. Since

$$(a + 1)^p = a^p + pa^{p-1} + \&c. + 1,$$

and since each term, excepting the first and last, is divisible by p ,

$$\frac{(a + 1)^p}{p} \text{ has the same remainder as } a^p + 1.$$

Let $a = 1$, then 2^p and 2 divided by p leave the same remainder; $\therefore 2^p + 1$ and $2 + 1$ divided by p leave the same remainder.

Let

Let $a \equiv 2$, then 3^p and $2^p + 1$, and consequently 3, divided by p , leave the same remainder; and $\therefore 3^p + 1$ and $3 + 1$ or 4 divided by p leave the same remainder. Similarly, putting $a \equiv 3, 4$, &c. we may prove that a^p and a divided by p leave the same remainder: hence $\frac{a^p}{p} = q + \frac{r}{p}$

$$\text{and } \frac{a}{p} = q' + \frac{r}{p}.$$

$$\therefore \frac{a^p - a}{p} = (q - q') \text{ or } \frac{(a^{p-1} - 1) \cdot a}{p} = (q - q') :$$

but a is not divisible by p ; $\therefore a^{p-1}$ is so divisible. Hence, since $b^{p-1} - 1$ (b not being divisible by p) is divisible by p ; $\therefore (a^{p-1} - 1) - (b^{p-1} - 1)$ or $a^{p-1} - b^{p-1}$ is divisible by p .*

A very ingenious demonstration of this theorem has been inserted in a valuable periodical work, intitled *Leyburn's Mathematical Repository*, by Mr. Ivory.

Although $a^{p-1} - 1$ is divisible by p , yet a^{p-1} is not necessarily the least power of a ; which, divided by p , leaves 1 a remainder. In M. GAUSS's notation, $a^\lambda \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, where λ can be less than $p-1$; for instance, if a be 2, and the modulus p be 7, then $\frac{2^6}{7}$ or $\frac{64}{7} = 9 + \frac{1}{7}$, or 1 is a remainder, or $2^6 - 1$ is divisible by 7: but, if we take the 3d power of 2, or 8, then $2^3 - 1$ is divisible by 7. Again, if we take $a \equiv 4$, then $4^3 - 1$ is divisible by 7, as well as $4^6 - 1$: but, if we take $a \equiv 5$, then there is no power of a lower than the 6th, which, divided by 7, leaves the remainder 1.

It is to be observed that, in these instances, (in which $a \equiv 2$, and 4,) the index of the least power of a , which divided by p leaves a remainder 1, is $\frac{1}{2}$ of $p-1$; and Euler (*Novi Commentarii*, tom. VII. p. 69.) proved that, if $a^\lambda - 1$ is divisible by p , the exponent λ is a divisor of $p-1$. This curious theorem has been demonstrated by M. GAUSS, (pages 32, 33, &c.) who

* Euler's second demonstration is contained in the 7th, and not in the 8th volume of the *Novi Comm.* as M. GAUSS states.

shews that, when $a^\lambda \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ $\frac{p-1}{\lambda}$ being a whole number, elevating a^λ to the power $\frac{p-1}{\lambda}$, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Several curious properties belong to powers of a , such as a^λ ; many of which *Euler* has demonstrated, and which M. GAUSS has applied with great skill and ingenuity to the solution of equations. If λ divides $p-1$, and $a^\lambda - 1$ be divisible by p , a^λ being the least power of a which divided by p leaves the remainder $\equiv 1$, then the remainders of a, a^2, a^3 —up to a^λ are all different; or, as M. GAUSS would express it, the minima residua of a, a^2 &c. are different: for, suppose a^q , and $a^{q'}$, (q, q' each $< \lambda$) to have the same remainder r , then $\frac{a^q}{p} = \mathcal{Q} + \frac{r}{p}$

$$\frac{a^{q'}}{p} = \mathcal{Q}' + \frac{r}{p}$$

$$\therefore \frac{a^q - a^{q'}}{p} = (\mathcal{Q} - \mathcal{Q}'); \quad \text{or} \quad a^{q'} \frac{(a^{q-q'})}{p} = (\mathcal{Q} - \mathcal{Q}');$$

—but $a^{q'}$ is not divisible by p ; $\therefore a^{q-q'} - 1$ is divisible by p , which is absurd; for, by supposition, a^λ is the least power of a which divided by p leaves the remainder 1; and since q, q' are each less than λ , $q - q' < \lambda$.

Hence, if a^{p-1} be equal to a^λ , or if a^{p-1} be the least power of a which divided by p leaves the remainder unity, then by the division of the powers of a , up to a^{p-1} , all the numbers from 1 to $p-1$ are produced as remainders: for it has been proved that they are all different; and since the number is $p-1$, the number of remainders is $p-1$; or, in the language of the present author, the minima residua of the powers of a are, 1, 2, 3, 4, — — — — — $p-1$. Thus, if the modulus or divisor be 7, and a be equal to 5, the minima residua of

$$\begin{array}{l} 1, 5, 5^2, 5^3, 5^4, 5^5, 5^6 \\ \text{are} \quad 1, 5, 4, 6, 2, 3, 1. \end{array}$$

If λ be an aliquot part of $p-1$, then, in the division of the powers

powers of a beyond a^λ by p , the remainders of a , a^2 &c. by p

recur; for $a^\lambda + 1 \equiv a^\lambda a$; $\therefore \frac{a^\lambda + 1}{p} \equiv \frac{a^\lambda}{p} a$: but $\frac{a^\lambda}{p}$ leaves a remainder 1; $\therefore \frac{a^\lambda + 1}{p}$ leaves the same remainder as $\frac{a}{p}$, and hence the remainders recur: or, stated in M. GAUSS's symbols,

$$a^\lambda + 1 \equiv a, \quad a^\lambda + \gamma \equiv a^\gamma \pmod{p}.$$

Whether or not the remainders that occur in the division of the powers of a by p be the series

$$1, 2, 3, \&c. \text{ to } p-1,$$

or only certain numbers in that series, depends on the peculiar value of a .

When a is such that, by the division of the powers of a by p , all the remainders are produced from 1 to $p-1$, then a is called a *primitive root*; which name was, we believe, first given by *Euler**. M. GAUSS adopts the same denomination, and these *primitive roots* are of the greatest importance in the curious application which he has made of his theory to the inscription of polygons in a circle. If p be 19, and we search for a primitive root to 19, 2 is such root; and for the powers of 2, the indices of which are

0; 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, the minima residua are

1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 13, 7, 14, 9, 18, 17, 15, 11, 3, 6, 12, 5, 10, 1.

To this theorem of *Fermat*, the present author adds another, of which he says that this of *Fermat* is only a particular case. It is this: if p be a prime number, the power of the polynomial $a + b + c + \&c.$ is $\equiv a^p + b^p + c^p + \&c.$ according to the modulus p :—or, in ordinary language,

$(a + b + c + \&c.)^p \equiv (a^p + b^p + c^p + \&c.)$ is divisible by p .

If we evolve $(a + b + c + \&c.)^p$, and subtract $a^p + b^p + \&c.$ then the remainder is composed of terms as $P a^\alpha b^\beta c^\gamma$.

Now *De Meivre* has proved, in the *Philosophical Transactions*, that the coefficient $P = \frac{1.2.3 \dots p}{1.2.3 \dots \alpha.1.2.3 \dots \beta.1.2.3 \dots \gamma}$:

but p being the number of permutations of p , and consequently a whole number, the numerator is divisible by the denominator;

* “*Hujusmodi radices progressionis geometricæ, quæ series residuorum completas producant primitivas appellabo.*” *Novi Comm.* tom. xviii. p. 89.

yet it is divisible by p , while the denominator is not divisible by p , being composed of factors less than p . In the 75th article, M. GAUSS in his peculiar manner arrives at that remarkable property of numbers which Waring attributes to Wilson*; viz. if n be a prime number,

then $\frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (n-2) \cdot (n-1) + 1}{n}$ is an integral number.

For instance, let $n = 5$, then

$$\frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 + 1}{5} = 5$$

Let $n = 7$, then $\frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 + 1}{7} = 103$.

Waring remarks on this and other properties, "*Demonstrationes vero hujusmodi propositiones eo magis difficiles erunt, quod nulla fingi potest notatio qua primum numerum exprimit.*" M. GAUSS, after having noticed this observation, rather tartly remarks on it, '*pour nous, nous pensons que la démonstration de cette sorte de vérités doit être puisée dans les principes plutôt que dans la notation.*'

The theorem of Wilson has been demonstrated by *La-grange* in the Berlin Memoirs for 1771, and by *Euler*. M. GAUSS also demonstrates it, and then makes the theorem more general in the following manner. 'The product of all numbers prime, with a given number A , and less than that number, is congruous, according to A , to unity taken positively or negatively.'

When we were speaking of the remainders of the powers of a by p , we omitted to mention a very simple mode of determining the remainder of a^{λ} divided by p ; which *Euler* first gave, (*De Residuis ex divisione potestatum relictis*, p. 53. *Novi Comm.* tom. VII.) and which M. GAUSS has improved.

Suppose $\frac{a^{\lambda}}{p} = q + \frac{r}{p}$, or $a^{\lambda} = pq + r$,

and $a^{\lambda'} = pq' + r'$,

then $a^{\lambda + \lambda'} = p^2 qq' + p(rq' + r'q) + rr'$.

* Wilson quitted abstract science for the law, and became a Judge. Waring, in the Preface to the *Meditationes*, thus speaks of him: "*Hoc opus moliebatur mecum, et in partes distribuebat eruditissimus vir Joannes Wilson armiger, et laboris quidem totius particeps fuisset, ni studia forensia quibus se dedit vetuissent: adjutore tali tantoque non sine magno et meo et rei mathematica damno carui: ab illius enim ingenio hæc scientia incrementa esset captura ab aliis, via aut ne via quidem speranda.*"

Hence

Hence, $a^{x+\lambda'}$ divided by p leaves a remainder rr' ; and if $\lambda' = \lambda$, $a^{2\lambda}$ divided by p , leaves a remainder r^2 ; \therefore putting $\lambda' = 2\lambda, 3\lambda, \&c.$ successively, the successive remainders of $a^{3\lambda}, a^{4\lambda}, \&c.$ are $r^3, r^4, r^5, \&c.$

Suppose it were required to find the remainder of 7^{160} divided by 641; the first remainder of 7 by 641 is 7, &c. \therefore the successive remainders of $7^2, 7^3, 7^4$ will be 49, 343, 478; or, since $641 - 478 = 163$, we may express that remainder by its complement, prefixing a negative sign, thus -163 . Similarly, the remainders of $7^8, 7^{16}, 7^{32}, 7^{64}, 7^{128}$, will be 288, 255, 284, $-110, -79$; and since $7^{160} = 7^{128} \times 7^{32}$, the remainder of $7^{160} = -79 \cdot 284$, and the least remainder will be 640 or -1 .

This method may be abridged: thus, suppose a^x to be the power of a which is to be divided by p , let a^λ be the power which divided by p leaves 1 as a remainder: make $x = n\lambda + \mu$, $\mu < \lambda$, then a^x divided by p has the same remainder as a^μ divided by p . For example: to find the remainder of 3^{1000} by 13; $1000 = 999 + 1 = 3(333) + 1$: but

$$\frac{3}{13} \text{ leaves a remainder } 1; \therefore \frac{3 \cdot (333)}{13} \text{ leaves remainder } 1;$$

$\therefore 3^{1000} = 3^{999} \times 3$ divided by 13 leaves the same remainder as 3 does, or the remainder is 3. This amounts to the same as the 47th article of M. GAUSS.

We must leave these and other curious matters, because, before we dismiss this work, we wish to draw the reader's attention to some very ingenious and admirable applications which the author has made of his theory. Section VI. is intitled *Application to different Researches*, but does not refer to the most interesting. It commences with simple applications; such as, if $m = a \times b$ (a and b being prime,) then $\frac{n}{m}$ may be resolved into two fractions, as $\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b}$; for, since

$$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} = \frac{n}{m}, \therefore y = \frac{n - bx}{a}; \text{ but } y \text{ must be}$$

an integer. According to M. GAUSS, $n \equiv bx \pmod{a}$; and the result, as it is easy to see, agrees with the common and ordinary method, that which is given in the second volume of *Euler's Algebra*.

From this proposition, it follows that, if $m = a \cdot b \cdot c \cdot d \cdot \text{etc.}$
 $\frac{n}{m}$ may be resolved into $\frac{x}{a} + \frac{N}{b \cdot c \cdot d \cdot \text{etc.}}$

$$\text{and } \therefore \text{ into } \frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{N}{c \cdot d \cdot \text{etc.}}$$

$$\text{and } \therefore \text{ into } \frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{z}{c} + \text{etc.}$$

Hence, if an angle $A = \frac{n}{m} \cdot 2\pi$, (2π being the circumference,) A may be resolved into $2\pi \cdot x + \frac{2\pi \cdot y}{b} + 2\pi \cdot \frac{z}{c} \cdot \text{etc.}$

Our preceding comments have been purposely directed to those properties of numbers that are connected with *Fermat's* theorem, since they will serve to elucidate that which we chiefly wish to elucidate, viz. M. GAUSS's seventh section relative to equations that determine circular sections; and we perfectly agree with the author, when he remarks 'that the reader will be astonished to meet with such a research, in a work consecrated to a doctrine that at first sight appears absolutely heterogeneous.'

If we take the equation $x^n - 1 = 0$, we may, as Cotes and *De Moivre* have done, resolve it into quadratic factors; and thence we may generally exhibit one of the roots (r) under this form:

$$r = \cos. \frac{kP}{n} + i \sin. \frac{kP}{n},$$

k being a number of the progression, 1, 2, 3 — — — $n-1$; P being the circumference of the circle; and i being the imaginary root of the equation $x^2 + 1 = 0$.

Since the quadratic factor is of the form $x^2 - 2 \cos. \frac{2kP}{n} x + 1$, the second root must be $\frac{1}{r}$.

$$\text{Hence } \frac{1}{r} = \cos. \frac{kP}{n} - i \sin. \frac{kP}{n}.$$

$$\text{Hence } r + \frac{1}{r} \text{ or } \frac{1+r^2}{r} = 2 \cos. \frac{kP}{n},$$

$$r - \frac{1}{r} \text{ or } \frac{r^2-1}{r} = 2i \sin. \frac{kP}{n}$$

and

and hence, if we can determine a root, as r , we are able to assign the sine and cosine of $\frac{kP}{n}$.

Let n be a prime odd number; then $x^n - 1 = 0$ has a single real root 1. Divide $x^n - 1$ by $x - 1$, and the resulting equation,

$$x^{n-1} + x^{n-2} + x^{n-3} \&c. + x + 1 = 0 \quad (X)$$

contains the remaining $n-1$ roots.

If r be a root of this equation, then it is a root of $x^n - 1$; $\therefore r^n = 1$, $r^{2n} = 1$, and generally $r^{sn} = 1$, s being a whole number: but, since r^{2n} , r^{3n} , &c. are equal to $(r^n)^2$, $(r^n)^3$, it is clear that r^0 , r^1 , r^2 , ..., r^{n-1} represent the roots of the equation $x^n - 1 = 0$; and consequently that r^e , r^{2e} , r^{3e} , &c. — $r^{(n-1)e}$ will coincide with the roots of the equation X .

Hence $r^e + r^{2e} + r^{3e} + \&c. + r^{(n-1)e} = -1$.

Since r is a root of $x^n - 1$, and the other roots are powers of r , if we multiply several roots together the product is r^λ , where $\lambda < n$, since the index of r may be reduced: for $r^n + 2 = r^n r^2 = r^2$. Hence if any function of indeterminate quantities, as t , u , &c. were evolved, and the terms were of this form, $Mt^a \cdot u^b$, &c. then, by substituting for t , u , roots of $x^n - 1$, the term would become $M r^\lambda$; another term, as $M' t^c u^d$ &c. would become $M' r^{\lambda'}$; and so on: so that the evolved function, or collection of terms, would assume this form,

$$A + A' r + A'' r^2 + \dots + A^{(v)} r^{n-1}.$$

If, instead of the simple powers of the roots, we substitute the second, third, &c. and m^{th} powers, then the preceding series would become:

$$A + A' r^2 + A'' r^4 + \&c.$$

$$A + A' r^m + A'' r^{2m} + \&c.$$

the coefficients A , A' , A'' &c. remaining the same,

This being premised, we shall now state the object of M. GAUSS's investigations; and since the exposition of the general theory, in all its parts, would lead us far beyond our boundaries, we must be contented if we succeed in making plain and sensible the spirit of his method by examples.

In the equation $x^n - 1 = 0$, suppose $n = 19$: then the equation X , or $x^{18} + x^{17} + \&c.$ is of 18 dimensions, or has 18 roots; and these 18 roots may be divided into three periods, containing

containing 6 roots each. Again, each period of 6 roots may be divided into three periods of 2 roots each. By the solution of a cubic equation, the sums of the three periods of six terms are to be determined: then, by the solution of a second cubic equation, the sums of the periods containing two terms each are to be determined; and finally, by the solution of a quadratic, the roots contained in the periods containing two terms are to be determined. Having obtained two roots by the solution of a quadratic, the remaining 16 roots may be determined by the solution of eight similar quadratics.

M. GAUSS uses a particular notation for the periods, and for the roots contained in them. The roots, $r, r^2, r^3, \&c.$ he represent thus, $[1], [2], [3]$, and generally r^λ by $[\lambda]$. Now the roots are $r, r^2, \&c.$ up to r^{n-1} : but is there any other way of representing them? We must recollect what has been said of primitive roots: a primitive root is that, the powers of which up to $n-1$ divided by n leaves the remainders $1, 2, 3, \dots, n-1$, although not in that order. Let g be such primitive root, then the numbers $1, g, g^2, \dots, g^{n-2}$ divided by n leave remainders, $1, 2, 3, \dots, n-1$, (though not in that order): consequently the roots $r^1, r^2, r^3, \&c.$ coincide with the roots $r, r^2, r^3, \&c.$: for, suppose $\frac{g^\mu}{n}$ to equal $q + \frac{\rho}{n}$, then $g^\mu = nq + \rho$;

$\therefore r^{g^\mu} = r^{nq + \rho} = r^{nq} \times r^\rho$ (since $r^{nq} = 1$) $= r^\rho$; and since $\rho < n$, ρ is a number included in the series of numbers, $1, 2, 3, \dots, n-1$. Hence, more generally, the root, which is r , raised to a power the index of which is λg^1 , coincides with one of the roots, $r, r^2, r^3, \&c.$

According to the value of n , g must be taken; and it has in a previous part been shewn that, if $n=19$, g or a primitive root is 2. On the properties of these primitive roots, almost the whole of M. GAUSS's process depends.

Make $\frac{n-1}{f} = e$, and let $g^e = h$: if $f = n-1$, then $e = 1$, and the powers of g coincide with those of h . If f in our instance $= 6$, and $n=19$, $e = 3$, $\therefore h^0, h, h^2, h^3, \dots, h^{f-1}$ correspond to $g^0, g^1, g^2, \dots, g^{f-1}$. Suppose the sum of f roots to be thus denoted, (f, λ) or that (f, λ) stands for the collection of roots.

$[\lambda] [\lambda h] \&c.$ to $[\lambda h^{f-1}]$;

and consequently, in our instance of $n=19$, $(18, 1)$ will stand for the collection of roots of which the indices are

$$1, g, g^2, \&c. = g^{17},$$

$$\text{or } 1, h, h^2, \dots, h^{17}.$$

Again,

Again, if $f=6$, then $e=3$, and $(6, 1)$ will stand for the collection of roots of which the indices are,

$$1, 2^3, 2^6, 2^9, 2^{12}, 2^{15},$$

since $g=2$ and $e=3$.

These indices, however, admit of reduction, since we must find their minima residua, or their remainders ≤ 19 , when they are divided by 19. Now the remainders of 1 and 8 are 1 and 8; the remainder of 2^6 , or 64 divided by 19, is 7; the minimum residuum of 2^9 is 18; and the remaining residua 11 and 12; hence the period denoted by $(6, 1)$ will contain the roots

$$r, r^7, r^8, r^{11}, r^{12}, r^{18}.$$

The general form for the collection of 6 roots being $(6, \lambda)$ where λ is an integer, if we put $\lambda=2$, then the period $(6, 2)$ is composed of roots of which the indices are

$$2, 2 \cdot 2^3, 2 \cdot 2^6, \&c. \text{---} 2 \cdot 2^{15}.$$

Finding the minima residua by dividing by 19, these residua are

$$2, 16, 14, 17, 3, 5,$$

or the period $(6, 2)$ contains the roots

$$r^2, r^{16}, r^{14}, r^{17}, r^3, r^5.$$

If we now put $\lambda=3$, the first root of the period $(6, 3)$ will be r^4 , which root was contained in the preceding period; therefore, (which is easily proved,) all the roots of the period $(6, 3)$ are the same as the roots in the period $(6, 2)$.

If we put $\lambda=4$, then, by proceeding as we have done in the two former instances, the period $(6, 4)$ will contain the roots

$$r^4, r^6, r^9, r^{10}, r^{13}, r^{15};$$

and hence the roots of $x^{18} + x^{17} + \&c.$ are contained in these three periods; and every other period $(6, \lambda)$ can be reduced to one of them.

The first division of the 18 roots, we have said, is to be made into three periods of 6 terms each; and the cubic equation, whose roots are the sums $(6, 1)$, $(6, 2)$, $(6, 4)$, is to be solved. Let the roots be p, p', p'' , and the equation $x^3 - Ax^2 + Bx - C = 0$; then $A = p + p' + p'' = (6, 1) + (6, 2) + (6, 4) = \text{sum of 18 roots} = (18, 1)$: but, since $x^{18} + x^{17} + \&c. - 1 = 0$, $\therefore r^{18} + r^{17} + \&c. = -1$. Again, $B = pp' + pp'' + p'p''$. Now to facilitate the formation of these quantities, M. GAUSS gives this theorem; if the roots of a period (f, λ) be $\lambda, \lambda', \lambda'', \&c.$ then the product of (f, λ) with another similar period is

$$= (f, \lambda + \mu) + (f, \lambda' + \mu) + (f, \lambda'' + \mu) + \&c. (a).$$

In

In our instance, $p \equiv (6, 1)$, and the roots of $(6, 2)$ are, 2, 3, 5, 14, 16, 17.

Hence, if we take $\mu = 1$,

$$\lambda + \mu = 2 + 1, \lambda' + 1 = 3 + 1;$$

and the following sums will be evidently 6, 15, 17, 18:

hence $(6, 1) \times (6, 2) =$

$$(6, 3) + (6, 4) + (6, 6) + (6, 15) + (6, 17) + (6, 18)$$

but the periods $(6, 6)$, $(6, 15)$ are the same as the period

$(6, 4)$, since $[6]$ and $[15]$ are roots of that period;

and $(6, 3)$ $(6, 17)$ are the same as the period $(6, 2)$:

hence $(6, 1) \times (6, 2)$ or $pp' = p + 2p' + 3p''$.

Precisely in the same way it is proved that

$$pp'' = 2p + p'' + 3p', \quad p'p'' = 3p + p' + 2p''$$

and consequently we have

$$B = 6(p + p' + p'') = -6.$$

In order to form $C = pp'p''$,

$$\text{since } pp' = (6, 1) + 2(6, 2) + 3(6, 4),$$

we must according to the preceding theorem (a) combine $(6, 1) + 2(6, 2) + 3(6, 4)$ with every one of the roots of p'' or 6, 4; and then, by collecting like periods, we shall have

$$\begin{aligned} C &= 11(p + p' + p'') + 3 \cdot (6, 14) \\ &= 11(18, 1) + 3 \cdot (6, 0) \end{aligned}$$

but evidently according to the definition given of (f, λ) , $(6, 0)$ is equal to the sum of roots of which the indices are 0, ab , ab^2 &c. consequently, $= r^0 + r^a + \&c. = 6$.

Hence, since $(18, 1) \equiv -1$, $C = 18 - 11 = 7$.

Hence the Equation becomes

$$x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 7 = 0 \quad (A);$$

and one of the roots of this equation is $= -1, 221876$. If $(6, 1)$ be represented by this root, then $(6, 2)$, $(6, 4)$ may be thence deduced, and this by a most dextrous application which M. GAUSS has made of the theorem (a); for since such theorem assigns the form for the developement of (f, μ) , (f, λ) , it assigns also the form for the developement of $(f, \lambda)^2$, $(f, \lambda)^3$ &c. Hence, since (retaining the notation p, p', p'') p^2, p^3 , &c. can be expressed in terms involving p, p', p'' , by elimination we may express p', p'' in terms involving p, p^2 , &c. In the instance which we have used, $1 + p + p' + p'' = 0$, since $1 + r + r^a + \&c. = r^{18} = 0$, and consequently $p = -(1 + p' + p'')$; hence pp or $p^2 = 6 + 2p + p' + 2p''$; and thence by elimination,

$$p' = 4 - p^2, \quad p'' = -5 - p + p^2.$$

Hence

Hence $(6, 2) = 4 - (6, 1)^2$, $(6, 4) = -5 - (6, 1) + (6, 1)^2$ &c.

∴ substituting numerically for $(6, 1)$

$(6, 2) = 2,507018$ &c. $(6, 4) = -2.285142$ &c. With these three values, we are able immediately to resolve the equation $x^{18} +$ &c. of 18 degrees, into 3 equations of 6 dimensions each:—but we proceed to the resolution of the $(6, 1)$ into other periods.

Now $(6, 1)$ may be resolved into three periods of two terms each, which will be $(2, 1)$, $(2, 2^3)$, $(2, 2^6)$: but since the minima residua of $2^3 = 8$ and $2^6 = 64$ are 8 and 7, these periods are more simply expressed by

$$(2, 1), (2, 7) (2, 8).$$

By what means shall we form the equation of which the roots are $(2, 1)$, $(2, 7)$ $(2, 8)$? Exactly, as we formed the other cubic equation. Let these periods be denoted by q , q' , q'' and let the cubic equation (B) be $x^3 - Ax^2 + Bx - C = 0$, then $(q + q' + q'') = (6, 1)$; form qq' by combining the period $(2, 1)$ with the roots of $(2, 7)$, which roots are $[7]$ and $[18]$, and similarly qq'' , $q'q''$: then by adding them together we shall have $B = (6, 1) + (6, 4) = -1.22187$ &c. $+ -2.28514 = -3.50701$ &c, and in like manner we may form $C = 2 + (6, 2) = 4.50701$ &c. So that the equation, the roots of which are the sums $(2, 1)$ $(2, 7)$, $(2, 8)$, becomes

$$x^3 + 1,2218 \text{ &c. } x^2 - 3,5070 \text{ &c. } x - 45070 \text{ &c. } = 0.$$

By the solution of this cubic, we find a root $= -1,354563$ &c. and representing the period $(2, 1)$ by it, following a method the same as that by which p , p' , p'' were expressed in a series of terms involving p^2 , p^3 , &c. we shall obtain the several values of the periods

$$(2, 2) (2, 4) (2, 6) \text{ &c. } \text{---} (2, 9)$$

We have now reduced the periods to consist of two terms, and the 18 roots are separated into nine periods of two terms each.

The period $(2, 1)$ contains the two roots of which the indices are 1 and 2^9 , or 1 and 512: but the division of 512 by 19 leaves the remainder 18, or the minimum residuum of 29 is 18: hence, if we assume the quadratic equation $x^2 - Ax + B$, we have $A = (2, 1)$, $B = [1, 19] = 1$. Hence, solving the quadratic equation $x^2 - (2, 1)x + 1 = 0$, or $x^2 + 1,3545 \text{ &c. } x + 1 = 0$; and using, as before, i to denote $\sqrt{-1}$, we have

$$x = -0,677281 \text{ &c. } \pm 0,735723 i;$$

and the remaining 16 roots may be deduced either from the elevation of one of these roots x , or by the solution of 8 quadratic equations similar to

$$x^2 - (2, 1)x + 1 = 0.$$

Hence

Hence the equation $x^{19}-1=0$ is completely resolved, and thence the division of the circle into n parts is effected. In the preceding instance, since $18=2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3$, the resolution required the solution of two cubical equations and of one quadratic. If we take $n=17$, then $n-1=16=2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2$; and hence the solution of $x^{17}-1=0$ may be accomplished similarly to the preceding manner, by the solution of four equations of the second degree. This, then, is a more simple case than the preceding; and, after M. GAUSS, we shall now subjoin the successive distribution of the 16 roots into their several periods:

$$16, 1 \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (8, 1) \\ (8, 3) \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (4, 1) \\ (4, 9) \\ (4, 3) \\ (4, 10) \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (2, 1) \\ (2, 13) \\ (2, 9) \\ (2, 15) \\ (2, 3) \\ (2, 5) \\ (2, 10) \\ (2, 11) \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} = [1], [16] \\ = [4], [13] \\ = [8], [9] \\ = [2], [15] \\ = [8], [14] \\ = [5], [12] \\ = [7], [10] \\ = [6], [11] \end{array}$$

We know scarcely any part of analysis, that presents us with a process derived from such refined principles, or conducted with so much exactness and dexterity, as the preceding. It indeed excites our admiration, and we still continue to wonder at the almost miraculous aid which the abstract properties of the number n and its primitive roots have contributed in this investigation: for without these properties, the successive distribution of the roots into periods would have been impracticable.

In our preceding summary we have chiefly confined our attention and directed our explanation to an instance; for in this case, especially, an instance most clearly shews the spirit of the method: but M. GAUSS has by several theorems given a formal and scientific construction to his theory, and that is shewn to be true generally which we have shewn to be feasible in a specific instance.

M. GAUSS, then, in this application of his theory, reduces the division of the circle into n parts, (when n is a prime number,) to the solution of as many equations as there are factors in the number $n-1$; the degrees of which factors depend on the magnitude of the factors. When $n-1$ is a power of 2, which happens for the values of n ,

$$3, 5, 7, 257, 65537, \&c.$$

then the division of the circle is reduced to equations of the second dimensions only, and in these cases the description of
a regular

a regular polygon of n sides may be performed by geometrical constructions. 'It is (says the author) surprizing that, the division of the circle into three and five parts having been known in the time of Euclid, nothing should have been added to these discoveries in an interval of 2000 years; and that all mathematicians should have announced it as certain that, excepting these divisions and the divisions dependent on them, no other could be effected by geometrical constructions.'

The numerical values of n , which conduct to equations of the second degree only, are contained in the form

$$2^{2^v} + 1:$$

thus, if $v=0, 1, 2, 3$ &c. the numbers are 3, 5, 17, 257: but all the numbers produced by assigning different values to v conduct not to a geometrical division of the circle; since the above formula does not, as *Fermat* asserted, contain numbers necessarily prime numbers. *Euler* first shewed that the formula was defective, since if $v=5$, $2^v=2^5=32$, and $2^{32} + 1 = 4294967297$, which is divisible by 641.

We have now exhibited some of the excellent and interesting disquisitions contained in the present volume. It were but small and inadequate praise, to say that the author every where shews himself to be an adroit and able mathematician. He has higher claims to distinction, and deserves rank for the originality of his researches. His inventions may not be immediately useful, nor may they seem to tend towards utility: but they are singularly curious, interesting, and unexpected; and they are derived from sources with which we should previously have pronounced that they could have no connection.

The minor praise of perspicuity, however, and of happy arrangement, M. GAUSS neither deserves nor has endeavoured to obtain; for he tells us more than once that, for the sake of expedition, he purposely leaves parts unexplained, and without demonstration: but the reader, in the perusal, will also frequently recognise, after some unpleasant and toilsome exertion of his intellect, that many of the processes have an obscurity and perplexity not necessarily belonging to their object. Whoever will compare *Euler's* reasonings with those of M. GAUSS, when, which is often the case, they are employed on the same speculation, must be struck with the manifest superiority of the former mathematician in regard to simplicity and clearness of demonstration. Some allowance must, however, be made for the perplexity incidental to new names and new signs.

Though this article is by no means of contracted dimensions, it leaves many interesting parts of the work unnoticed. In-

deed, the structure of M. GAUSS is so extensive, and possesses so many compartments, that a specific examination of each is impossible: we have generally described its plan, and exhibited one room,—that which in our judgment is the most curious and important.

ART. XIII. *Almanach des Gourmands, &c ; i. e. The Epicures' Almanack, or Guide to the Methods of Good Living.* By an old Amateur. 4th and 5th Years. 12mo. Paris. 1806 and 1807. De Boffe, London. Price 3s. sewed each.

ART. XIV. *Le Cuisinier Impérial, &c. ; i. e. The Imperial Cook, or the Art of Cookery, and of making Pastry, adapted to all Classes ; with different Receipts for making Preserves, and the Mode of supplying a Table with from twenty to sixty Covers.* By A. VIARD. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 9s. sewed.

IT is remarked, in this *Gourmand's Almanac*, that the *entrées*, or substantial dishes, may be compared to the principal apartments on the first floor of a large hotel, the *entremets* to elegant attics, and the *hors-d'œuvres* to the decorated closets, *boudoirs*, and recesses, which augment the effect of the distribution and complete the beauty of the apartment; yet we find that the true Glutton regards these *hors-d'œuvres* as adding to the decoration rather than to the excellence of a dinner: though the ladies are partial to these relishing bagatelles, which, from custom, can now be no more omitted than rouge by a beautiful woman. As eating is a science, it is contended that guests should be drilled to the exercise of the knife and fork, and be cautious to avoid those awkwardnesses by which the arrangement of the table is often disturbed, and a party is not a little incommoded.

The 'Rambles of a *Gourmand* through Paris' advertise where the several articles of good living are to be procured, with the names of the venders. With respect to wines and *liqueurs*, that capital offers a splendid variety. The sprightly report of the old Amateur concludes with some humorous verses in mock commendation of a deceased Epicure.

From *the Imperial Cook*, we have abundance of receipts, but no wit; and they who wish to study the kitchen department in a French family may consult this work, we should suppose, with advantage: but we should inform them that they must procure other aids for comprehending it than ordinary French Dictionaries.

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